

GROWTH AND GREATNESS OF OUR * * * * * WORLD-WIDE EMPIRE







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THE
GROWTH AND GREATNESS
OF OUR
WORLD-WIDE EMPIRE

BY

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Preface

THIS book has been written to open the eyes of British boys and girls to the splendid inheritance which is theirs, to stir their hearts with feelings of admiration for the great men by whom that inheritance has been won, and to inspire them with the spirit of true patriotism, with that spirit of love and devotion for their country which will help to make them worthy citizens of a mighty empire.

The author has assumed a general acquaintance, on the part of his readers, with the outlines of English history, and has aimed at writing a story rather than a history, giving such a selection of telling facts and personal incidents as is calculated to produce a vivid impression of the main course of our nation's history in relation to its growth and greatness.

As there is a world of difference between bigness and true greatness, between the bare possession of power and its beneficent use, the writer has laid great stress on those records of our history which show the kind of work England has done in the world, the use she has

made of her conquests, and the part she has played in the cause of humanity, personal liberty, and commercial freedom.

It is hoped that the readers of this little work will rise from its perusal with a clear conception of the way in which the British Empire has attained its present proportions and high destiny, and with some knowledge of the men who have been its founders and chief builders. The intelligent appreciation of the glorious achievements by which our world-wide empire has been founded and built up, will tend to create and foster that "imperial patriotism" which naturally leads our countrymen, both at home and in the colonies, to take a sympathetic interest in the affairs of the whole empire, and to aim at an effective and permanent union between its sundry and sundered parts.

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Growth and Greatness of our World-wide Empire

CHAPTER I

A New Era

ONE of the marvels of the world is the extent of the British Empire when compared with the size of the little island which forms its centre of life and growth. Unlike Russia, with its compact territory, our empire consists of several detached portions, widely scattered, but brought into easy communication by means of sea and ship. The whole empire, exclusive of "the United Kingdom," is commonly designated Greater Britain. There are in Greater Britain two distinct classes of territory: one comprising the British Colonies—which are really an extension of the mother-country—at present sparsely peopled, but peopled for the most part by our own kith and kin; the other, consisting of India and Ceylon, with many other dependencies, having a population of about 300,000,000, differing widely in race, religion, manners and customs, laws and constitution, but all united by the bond of loyal allegiance to our Sovereign. And not yet incorporated in the empire itself are many outlying territories known as protectorates and "spheres of influence."

This vast empire—upwards of eleven millions of square miles in extent—has constantly expanded since

the reign of Queen Elizabeth, and has not yet, apparently attained its full size. It has been built up by the pluck, industry, enterprise, integrity, and good fortune of a long roll of adventurous and patriotic Britons. And it is for us, who have come into possession of this world-wide empire, to cement the union of its parts, to develop its resources, to defend its borders against all comers. Our forefathers have nobly dared and done to win this great inheritance, and the story of their deeds is fraught with matter of deep concern and keen interest to every Briton who is rightly proud of his birthright.

We sailed wherever ship could sail,
We founded many a mighty state;
Pray God our greatness may not fail
Thro' craven fears of being great.

I. REVIVAL OF LEARNING

LET us begin the story of England's growth and greatness with the new era of enlightenment which dawned upon the nations of Western Europe about the middle of the 15th century. At that time the dominions of the King of England comprised little beyond England and Wales. Ireland was nominally a part of his realm, but it was practically independent, adding nothing to his revenue or his power. Of the former French possessions of the English sovereign only Calais and the Channel Islands remained under his rule.

The new era of which we speak dates from the Fall of Constantinople. In 1453 that famous city was besieged and captured by the Turks, who now gained a permanent footing in Eastern Europe, and, being followers of Mahomet, set up there a Mohammedan kingdom. Pre-

vious to its fall, Constantinople was a great seat of learning, with many valuable libraries and schools. On the capture of the city, numerous Greek scholars bade farewell to their native land, and finding refuge in Italy, introduced there a knowledge of their language and literature. They carried with them many of the old Greek manuscripts, in which were stored the treasures of wisdom and knowledge for which the ancient Greeks were so renowned. Hence arose, first in Italy, and then in Western Europe, that great revival of learning and awakening of thought which is called the *Renaissance*, that is, "new birth"; for men seemed now to arise out of the darkness of error and superstition in which they had lain so long, to open their eyes to the light of knowledge, and to begin to think for themselves.

Copyists of old manuscripts were soon in great demand. They had more work to do than they could well accomplish. This set men's wits to work, and the result was the invention of printing. The first to use movable types was Gutenberg of Mainz. The new process was introduced into England by William Caxton, a Kentish man by birth, who had spent the greater part of his life in Flanders. In 1476 Caxton came to England with his printing-press, and this he set up in the Almonry at Westminster—a little enclosure, containing a chapel and almshouses, near the west front of the church, where the alms of the Abbey were distributed to the poor. Here came, as visitors to see this novel machine, and to converse with its owner, "many noble and divers gentlemen of this realm"; for the great men of the kingdom took a lively interest in the literary revival.

Caxton not only printed all that was most valuable in English literature, but he made numerous translations from Latin and French authors. Though busy as a printer, he was even busier as a translator. He found this work much more congenial than the old tedious process of copying manuscripts. He tells us in pathetic language, in the preface to his first printed book, the *Tales of Troy*, how heartily tired he had become of his old employment : “ For as much as in the writing of books my pen is worn, my hand weary and not steadfast, mine eyes dimmed with over-much looking on the white paper, and my courage not so prone and ready to labour as it has been, and that age creepeth on me daily and feebleth all the body . . . therefore I have practised and learned at my great charge and expense to ordain this said book in print . . . for it is not written with pen and ink as other books be, but all the books of this story here emprynted as ye see were begun and finished in one day.”

It is interesting also to hear what he says on the difficulty he experienced, when translating, in the choice of the most suitable words. “ Our language now used,” he says, “ varieth far from that which was used and spoken when I was a boy. And the common language of one shire differs from that of another so much that travellers from one part of England have much ado to make themselves understood in another part. . . . Certainly it is hard, in translating, to please every man by cause of diversity and change of language.”

The unsettled state of our language at this time is worthy of note ; for if Englishmen had founded colonies at that early period, they would have soon differed

widely in their speech from those who remained in the mother-country. But the modern form of English being established in the course of the next century, before the tide of emigration began to flow, the emigrants from our shores carried with them the same tongue that continued to be spoken at home. This is a matter of no small importance ; for a common language is a strong bond of union. All who have gone from our shores and settled in other countries, however distant or widely separated, still speak the same language as ourselves. We all read the same books, and clothe our thoughts and feelings in almost the same words. This keeps us in heart and mind one people, however wide the seas between us, and impresses us deeply with the feeling of kinship. One and the same mother-tongue is a powerful cement between nations. Then, again, how much easier it is to do business with people who speak the same language, how much less liable two persons are to misunderstand each other when both are speaking the same language, and that their own. A common language, therefore, greatly helps to unite in heart and mind all the branches of our English-speaking family throughout the globe, and to facilitate intercourse between the different parts of our world-wide empire.

The new learning taught by Greek scholars was received with great enthusiasm, especially in Italy. "The galleys of her merchants," we are told, "brought back manuscripts from the East as the most precious portion of their freight." Very soon crowds of foreign scholars flocked over the Alps to learn the Greek language and to imbibe the new knowledge. Among

others from England was an earnest student, named John Colet, the honoured founder of St. Paul's School. Colet valued the knowledge of Greek chiefly because it was as a key to unlock the meaning of the New Testament, originally written in that language, and thus enabled him to draw from the well of truth at the fountain-head itself. This marks the kind of reception which the new learning met with in England from her noblest sons.

Meanwhile, the printing-press was doing wonders in diffusing the knowledge of Latin and Greek authors. Within fifty years from the commencement of Caxton's labours nearly all their great works were in print. The spirit of enquiry no longer slumbered, and the influence of the new learning continually spread, leading in England to considerable changes in men's religious opinions.

II. GREAT MARITIME DISCOVERIES

THE same spirit of inquiry that led some men at the revival of learning, in the latter half of the 15th century, to search out old truths hidden away in musty manuscripts, urged others of a more adventurous turn of mind to go in search of new lands. It requires some effort on our part to realize how limited was the knowledge of the earth possessed at that time by even the best geographers. The shape of the earth was generally known, but its size was a subject of wild conjecture, and the earth itself was still regarded as the centre of the universe.

The only parts of the world known to Europeans before the discovery of America were all situated in the

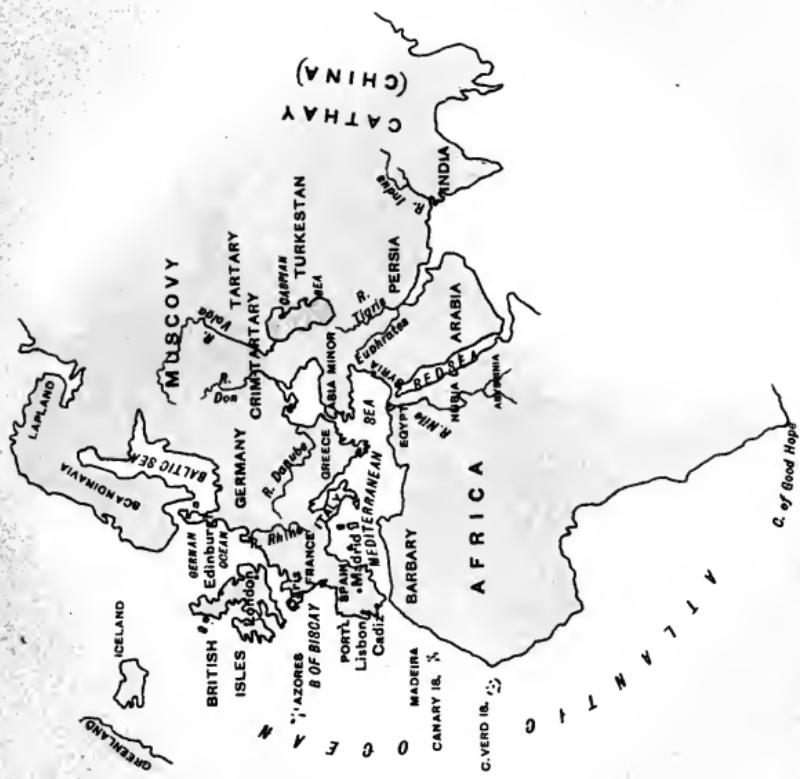
northern half of the Eastern Hemisphere. Even in Europe a large part of Russia, or Muscovy, as it was then called, was a blank spot on the map of that continent. The best known countries were those which formed the bulk of the old Roman Empire, and were grouped around the Mediterranean Sea. In respect to Asia, our countrymen were acquainted with the lands mentioned in the Bible, including Arabia and Persia ; and they had read travellers' accounts of Tartary, Mongolia, India, and Cathay, or China ; but these narratives contained much that was fabulous and imaginary. Egypt and the countries in the north of Africa were well known ; but with the exception of Ethiopia, or Abyssinia, and a strip of country on the western coast as far as the Gulf of Guinea, the whole of Africa lay in darkness.

To the Portuguese belongs the glory of leading the way in the discovery of new lands. It was their success on the coast of Africa that kindled the spirit of curiosity and enterprise which led to the discovery of the New World. By the middle of the 15th century the Portuguese had reached Cape Verde, and seen men with skins as black as ebony. The sight caused some of the sailors to fear that if they proceeded still further south, their skins would become equally black from the scorching heat of the tropical sun. On venturing, however, to sail still nearer to the equator, they found to their astonishment a region, not only habitable, but populous and fertile. Before turning back they explored the coast of Guinea, and found it rich in ivory and gold.

By this discovery an eager spirit of adventure was kindled, and Lisbon became the headquarters of bold

mariners bent on the exploration of new lands. It occurred to the sagacious mind of Prince Henry of Portugal, that India could be reached by following the coast of Africa. A squadron of ships was fitted out with this design, and the command entrusted to Bartholomew Diaz. Diaz advanced 1,000 miles farther south than any former navigator, and at last descried the lofty promontory which forms the southern extremity of Africa (1483). He was compelled, by the crazy condition of his ships, and the mutinous spirit of his sailors, to turn homeward before ascertaining that he had actually arrived at the southernmost point of the continent. Diaz had called the promontory which he had reached the *Stormy Cape*, but on returning to Lisbon with a report of his voyage, the king named it the *Cape of Good Hope*, for he believed that the long-desired route to India was now found. This, however, was not actually proved until 1498, when Vasco da Gama, having rounded the Cape, reached India and anchored in the harbour of Calicut.

In the meantime, the New World had been discovered by Christopher Columbus (1492). This extraordinary man was born at Genoa, and in the early years of his manhood was known as a bold, adventurous mariner, spending his leisure hours in drawing charts and maps. He became convinced that, as the world was round, India might be reached by sailing westward across the Atlantic. After many years of anxiety and bitter disappointment in seeking a rich patron, he at last prevailed upon Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain to give him the means of fitting out three small ships to test the truth of his theory.



THE KNOWN WORLD BEFORE THE DISCOVERIES OF COLUMBUS



Columbus began his voyage of discovery on setting sail from the Canary Islands. All to the west was absolutely unknown. No one knew anything about the width of the Atlantic or what lay beyond it. By steering steadily westward he came within the sphere of the trade-wind, which blows invariably from east to west within the tropics. He advanced rapidly and smoothly before this steady wind, but the greater the progress of the ships, the greater the alarm of the sailors. At length, when more than thirty days had passed, and still nothing could be seen but the sea and sky, Columbus was obliged to promise his men that, if in three days longer no land was discovered, he would tack about and return to Europe.

Before the expiration of the three days the joyful cry of "Land! Land!" arose from the foremost ship. The men soon manned the boats and pulled to shore, whilst the natives—their bodies naked, and their skin of a dusky, copper colour—flocked to the beach and gazed in wondering admiration. Columbus, clad in scarlet, leapt ashore, with the banner of Spain in one hand, and a naked sword in the other. In a few moments a crucifix was erected, and every Spaniard, falling prostrate before it, returned thanks to God for their marvellous success.

Columbus was not aware that he had brought a new continent to light, but supposed he had come upon the eastern extremity of Asia, and probably upon some islands lying off India. He had really landed upon one of the Bahama Islands. In consequence of his mistake the islands he had discovered were called the Indies, and the natives were spoken of as Indians. Cruising among the islands, which now bear the name of the West

Indies, the Spaniards discovered Cuba and Hayti, or Hispaniola, and then returned to Spain with the news of their success. Columbus made three other voyages to the West Indies and adjacent coasts, but to his dying day (1505) he remained in ignorance of the greatness of his discovery. When at length it was ascertained that a new continent of vast extent had been unearthed, instead of being called after Columbus, it derived its name from Amerigo Vespucci, a Florentine gentleman, who visited the southern part of the continent and gave his name to the countries that he depicted on his map.

Columbus had thus opened the door of a new world to the Spaniards, and left them on the threshold. They made such progress in exploring its unknown regions that at the end of twelve years from his death, they had roughly mapped out the eastern coast of America from Florida to the Rio de la Plata. They had also crossed the isthmus of Panama, and looked out on the waters of the great Pacific. The great problem now to be solved was how to take a ship from the Atlantic to the Pacific. Was it possible to find a strait which would lead from one ocean to the other?

Magellan, in the service of Spain, sailing along the eastern coast of South America, at length reached the southern end of the continent, and making his way through the Strait that bears his name, entered the waters of the unknown ocean to the west of America. Knowing absolutely nothing of the distance to be traversed, but bent on reaching India and the Spice Islands, if possible, by this untraversed route, Magellan set out boldly on his voyage to the west. For nearly four long months the brave adventurer held on his



COLUMBUS BEFORE FERDINAND AND ISABELLA OF SPAIN.

determined course with dispirited and famished crews, and at length sighted the group of islands called the Ladrones. Magellan himself was killed in a fight with natives on the homeward voyage, but his ship in due course cast anchor in the port of Cadiz, after circumnavigating the globe (1521), a feat now accomplished for the first time.

In the meantime a Portuguese navigator had accidentally stumbled upon Brazil, and taken possession in the name of his king ; but it was not until fifty years had passed that a Portuguese governor was sent to take command of the new colony. Possibly the Court of Portugal delayed so long on account of the famous award of Pope Alexander VI, who, on hearing of the discovery of America, drew a line from pole to pole through the middle of the Atlantic, and bestowed all the lands that should be discovered to the west of that line on the King of Spain, and all to the east on the King of Portugal. Our mariners made merry with that preposterous claim of the Pope to dispose of all new lands, when their time came to go on voyages of discovery. But the Spaniards seemed to think that the Western World belonged exclusively to them, and arrogantly warned off all nations from its borders.

III. CREATION OF THE ENGLISH NAVY

IT must be acknowledged that in the exploration of new countries our nation played a laggard part. It is true that in 1497 a few ships set sail from Bristol in search of new lands across the Atlantic. The expedition, however, was not headed by an Englishman, but by a

Venetian, named Cabot, who sailed indeed under the English flag, but in his own ship, equipped at his own expense. With him "ventured also three small ships of London merchants, fraught with some gross and slight wares, fit for commerce with barbarous people." After a prosperous voyage across the Atlantic, they threaded their way between the icebergs off the coast of Labrador, and on landing took possession of the dreary land in the name of King Henry VII. But nothing came of this adventure. It was not new territory the English of that day wanted to acquire, but new outlets for commerce.

Nearly all the trade done by the English at that time passed through Calais and Antwerp, these ports being well situated for the interchange of goods between England, on the one side, and the Netherlands, France, and Germany on the other. England had long been noted for its wool, lead, and tin; but by the reign of Henry VII. its chief export was woollen cloth, showing that the woollen manufacture had grown into importance. All the finer cloths, however, were still manufactured abroad or by foreign artificers at home.

The discovery of a route to India round the Cape of Good Hope produced almost immediately considerable changes in the current of European commerce. The Venetians, bringing home the spices and other productions of the East partly by land carriage, found themselves unable to compete with the Portuguese, now enjoying the advantage of a much cheaper conveyance wholly by sea. Lisbon and Antwerp now became the chief centres of trade with the East, and the glory of Venice faded away. The rise of Antwerp in commercial

importance reacted most favourably on English commerce, and by the end of Henry VII.'s reign our merchants had begun to engage in the new branches of foreign trade that had grown out of the late maritime discoveries. Merchant shipping was visibly growing from year to year, but as yet there seems to have been no Royal Navy worthy of the name, private ships having been impressed when a war-fleet was needed.

With the accession, however, of Henry VIII. (1509), England began to take her right place as a naval power. The new king was rich, clever, and ambitious. He knew well that if England was to secure her share of the spoils of the Indies, East and West, she must have a navy strong enough to enforce her claims. Henry, therefore, lost no time in establishing dockyards at Deptford and Woolwich, and in procuring from Italy and elsewhere skilled shipbuilders and cannon founders. He not only built war-ships, but organized a naval department for the management and maintenance of this branch of the public service. He also established by royal charter the Corporation of Trinity House, "for examining, licensing, and regulating pilots, and for ordering the erection of beacons and lighthouses."

The early Tudor war-ships were of course far from perfect. They had towering castles both at bow and stern, which made them top-heavy. Their rigging also was too unwieldy for stormy weather, and made it unsafe to keep the sea in winter. The fate of that "flower of ships," the *Mary Rose*, shows how easily vessels of the time were upset. Coming out of Portsmouth Harbour, on her way to join in battle with the French, her crew were tacking her, when she heeled over, and her lower-

deck ports being open, she rapidly sank, carrying with her some 400 soldiers and 200 sailors. Some of Henry's ships were evidently of large dimensions. The *Great Harry*, for instance, was of 1000 tons, and carried twenty-three great guns, some of which were loaded with shot weighing at least thirty pounds. We have another example of a large ship in the *Regent*, which was blown up with 700 men on board of her. This occurred in a sea-fight with the French early in the reign of Henry VIII. The two admirals laid their ships alongside each other, and fought until both ships caught fire and blew up. Both admirals and most of their men perished.

At the close of Henry's reign the navy belonging to the Crown consisted of 53 vessels of 12,000 tons in the aggregate, carrying 250 brass guns and 1850 of iron, the crews being estimated at 7,700 men. Henry VIII., therefore, has a good right to be considered the founder of the English navy. He had the satisfaction of knowing that some of the finest ships that sailed the seas flew the flag of St. George.

IV. GUNPOWDER IN WAR

AMONG the great changes that marked the new era of which we have been speaking was the common use of gunpowder in war. The European was the first to adopt the use of firearms, and the great advantage which it gave him when he came in contact with inferior races cannot easily be over-estimated. Gunpowder had already begun to play an important part in the world's history, and given a greater advantage in war to those nations that first employed it. For many years the use

of gunpowder was confined to great guns. But at first they were rudely constructed of wood, hooped with iron, and were almost as dangerous to the soldiers who fired them as to the enemy.

Improvements, however, in the manufacture were gradually introduced; and long before the hand-gun made its way into general use cannons were employed on board ship, and with great success in the siege of fortified places. Even previous to Columbus setting out on his first voyage of discovery, we have a striking example of the potency of gunpowder in the siege of strong places. When Ferdinand and Isabella came to the throne of Spain they sent to the Moorish King of Granada for the accustomed tribute. "Tell your sovereigns," was the haughty reply, "that the Kings of Granada who used to pay tribute are dead. Our mint at present coins nothing but blades of scimitars and heads of lances." But these steel weapons proved but a poor match for firearms in the war that ensued. The old Moorish towers and castles, which for ages had defied the battering-rams and catapults of the ancients, were toppled down by the Spaniards' great guns lately come into use. Thus, forty years after the Turks had burst into Europe and set up a Mohammedan kingdom in the East, the Moors, who were of the same faith, were driven out of Europe in the West.

Since then firearms for individual use were gradually coming into favour, and were beginning to displace the bow and arrow as weapons of war. But a strenuous effort was made by Henry VIII. to resist the change, for the English archer excelled all others in his art. Excellence is never a mere accident. It was due, in

this case, to a long and careful training, begun in early boyhood and enforced by stringent statutes. Fathers and masters of apprentices were commanded to teach the lads under their care the use of the bow, to provide them with weapons suited to their age and strength, and to compel them to practise shooting at regular intervals. With such force were the best English archers able to draw their strong rigid bows of yew, that even plate and mail were transfixed. In spite of all efforts to resist the change, firearms, in the course of the Tudor reigns, steadily grew in favour.

The use of gunpowder made an entire change in the art of warfare. Both the archer and the mailed knight disappeared. The old feudal castles, also, became quite useless as fortresses, and the barons in consequence lost much of their old power. In the reign of Henry VII. we find them quite unable to stand up against the king, who had possession of the only artillery train in the kingdom. Success in battle no longer turned mainly upon the individual prowess of the gentlemen in armour, but upon the right handling and steady discipline of the rank and file. A volley of shots from a line of common soldiers could scatter death and disorder among the ranks of the bravest knights on horseback. The change in the mode of fighting tended to the advantage of the commercial nations whose wealth enabled them to build strong fortifications and battle-ships, well-armed with the thunderbolts of war, and to employ trained men in sufficient numbers for the fighting to be done.

Moreover, the introduction of gunpowder opened a way to the conquest of the New World, lately discovered.

The novelty of firearms, their alarming report, and their seemingly magical action, inspired the natives with awe and terror, making it easy for the Spaniards on first landing in America to impose on them a foreign yoke. Without the advantage given by the possession of firearms, it is difficult to see how populous countries, like Mexico and Peru, could have been conquered by such handfuls of Europeans as were then able to cross the ocean.

The effect of superior weapons is equally striking at the present day, whenever Europeans come in contact with half-civilized people, like the blacks of West Africa. It is true these men are often armed with muskets, but they are of such an out-of-date pattern that they do comparatively little damage, even when, as rarely happens, they are held in skilful hands. Consequently, a few hundred well-armed and well-drilled natives, under British officers, can go to battle with as many thousands of the enemy and carry off the victory. Even when the natives are brave and well-armed, like the Zulus, with their terrible assegais, they cannot stand against one-tenth as many Englishmen armed with repeating rifles, and supported by Maxim guns, grinding out bullets by the score. It was never more evident than it is to-day that "Knowledge is Power," and never is this truth more conspicuously seen than on the battle-field.

V. THE OPEN BIBLE

AMONG all the great movements that marked the new era of which we are speaking, none had greater influence on the national character, none better prepared English-

men for playing their part worthily among the nations, than that which led to the placing before them "an open Bible" in their own language. There was a great difference of opinion among learned men as to the wisdom of making the Bible the people's handbook of religion. It had always been kept a sealed book, locked up in a foreign tongue. It was thought by many that the unlearned would not rightly understand the Bible, if they read it, even in their own mother-tongue, and that "an open Bible" would be the cause of much error and mischief.

In the early part of Henry VIII.'s reign it was forbidden to print the Bible in English. But some men were so strongly convinced that all people ought to have the opportunity of coming to the fountain-head of all religious truth that they were ready to incur any pains and penalties to effect their purpose. Among the men who laboured most effectually for making the Bible commonly known was Erasmus, of Rotterdam, one of the most famous scholars of his day. "I long for the day," he said, "when the husbandman shall sing portions of the Gospel to himself as he follows the plough, when the weaver shall hum them to the time of his shuttle, when the traveller shall while away with their stories the weariness of his journey."

One of the first Englishmen to give practical effect to the opinions in favour of an open Bible, was William Tyndale, one of England's worthies, who believed that men could not get a firm grip of the truth unless they saw it before them, in plain black and white, in their native tongue. Tyndale found it necessary, in order

to carry out his purpose, to retire to the Continent. Having translated the New Testament into English, he had it printed in Germany, and sent over to England (1526). Here it was eagerly purchased and read with avidity.

But Cardinal Wolsey was strongly opposed to this movement. He laid hands on all Tyndale's Testaments that came within his reach, and presided over a great burning of books in St. Paul's churchyard. Persons found in possession of forbidden books were required to walk thrice round the fire and commit them to the flames. The effect produced was very different from that intended, for people naturally suspected, however erroneously, that the doctrines of those who wished to keep the Bible a closed book did not agree with its teaching. Another and improved edition of Tyndale's Testament was soon printed, and numerous copies smuggled into England. The fact that it was forbidden only made men more desirous to have a copy.

The demand for the free circulation of the Holy Scriptures grew with a force that at length nothing could resist, and in 1536 King Henry directed the bishops to prepare an English translation of the Bible. Three years later appeared the first "authorised version" of the English Bible, and the clergy were required to set up a copy in every parish church. These Bibles were chained to the desk or wall. In many churches groups of eager listeners might have been seen standing around the reading-desk, while one more learned than the rest read aloud from the Bible.

This public reading led to lively discussions among the bystanders, and often, in their eagerness for the

truth, unseemly disputes arose. Nor was this wrangling over the meaning of the Scriptures confined to the churches ; but, as the king complained, they were "disputed, rhymed, sung, and jangled in every tavern and alehouse." All this shows the eagerness of the people to get at the truth, and their vivid interest in religious questions, although we must deplore their noisy wrangling, as they discussed the records of Divine truth that had been sealed up so long.

VI. A GLANCE ABROAD

BEFORE going on with those events in our own country which shaped the destinies of Englishmen, it is necessary to glance at the condition of affairs in one or two countries with whom our own had to contend for a foremost place among the nations.

In Sir Thomas More's famous work *Utopia*, or "Nowhere," no man was there subject to punishment for his errors in religion ; for the people of Utopia "were persuaded that it is not in a man's power to believe what he list." How different the picture when we turn from the pages of "Nowhere" to the history of Europe in the 16th century ! The world had not yet learnt the lesson of religious toleration. The battle of religious liberty had yet to be won, even in our own country, of whose freedom at the present day we are all so justly proud. At the time of which we are speaking, men of earnest religious opinions, whatever their creed, thought it their duty to force others, if they could, to accept their doctrines. Fines, imprisonment, and even death were often thought to be the due

reward for daring to differ from the common faith of the nation.

In France the difference of religious opinions was the cause of a long series of civil wars. The struggle between the Huguenots, as the French Protestants were called, and the rest of the nation went on more or less, throughout the reign of our Queen Elizabeth. It was not till near the close of her reign that the Huguenots, by the *Edict of Nantes* (1598), secured religious freedom and all the rights of free citizens. It will thus be seen that during the reign of Elizabeth, the French, in consequence of their religious dissensions, were not in a position to vex England with war.

The troubles in Spain, in consequence of religious differences, took another turn. There the doctrines of the Reformers found little acceptance. But those who dared to think for themselves were subjected to the tortures of the Inquisition. This was a court of bishops and priests, having their spies in every house to dive into the secrets of every breast, and to worm out a man's opinions on matters of religion. With the coming of Philip II.—the same who had married our Queen Mary—to the throne of Spain (1556), a fierce persecution began to rage in that unhappy country. He was the most bigoted Catholic that ever wore a crown, and obstinately bent on burning out "heresy," or what he considered false doctrine, from every corner of his wide dominions.

The Spanish monarchy at the time of Philip's accession was the foremost state in the world, and in 1580 it reached the acme of its greatness by the annexation of Portugal. The discoveries of Columbus had given

it the rich islands of the Caribbean Sea ; the conquests of Cortez and Pizarro had poured into its treasury the gold and silver of Mexico and Peru ; its galleons came laden each year into the harbour of Cadiz with the spoil obtained from the mines by the forced labour of the native Indians. To the New World its king added the fairest and wealthiest portions of the Old ; he was master of Naples and Milan, the richest and most fertile districts of Italy ; he inherited the thriving provinces of the Netherlands, including Flanders, the great manufacturing district of the time, and Antwerp, one of the world's chief centres of commerce. Such was the mighty monarchy of Spain, and such the character of the monarch who swayed its destinies, when Elizabeth became Queen of England.

CHAPTER II

Seedtime of England's Greatness

THE reign of Queen Elizabeth forms one of the great epochs—perhaps the greatest—of English history. To it we can trace all that constitutes the essential life and greatness of the England of our day. In it we can find the roots of that national life and character which now distinguish the English race. In that reign was determined the great question of our national religion, whether the Church of this land should be incorporated with that of Rome, or form a national Church with the Bible as her ultimate ground of faith. In it England grew into a mighty maritime State, and bade fair to become the mistress of the seas. In it her commerce expanded from a home-trade in the narrow seas that wash our shores to a not inconsiderable share in the ocean traffic of the world. Elizabeth had not been long on the throne before Scotland broke away from its ancient alliance with France, and began to anticipate the day when the whole island should acknowledge the same sovereign. In her reign, too, not only was the way prepared for the expansion of England into Great Britain, but the conquest of Ireland was completed, and the ground prepared for the foundation of a Greater Britain beyond the seas.

I. ELIZABETH THE HOPE OF ENGLAND

WITH Elizabeth's accession in 1558, Englishmen awoke as from a nightmare. England's fortunes were then at a very low ebb. She had been worsted in a war with France. Calais, England's gateway into France, and the great mart for her merchants, had been lost. The country seemed utterly helpless, almost without army or fleet, or the means of raising either.

The one hope of England centred in Elizabeth, whose coming to the throne was as the rising of the sun. Her passage from the Tower to Westminster was one triumphal progress. Away in the country the Protestants were few and the Catholics many; but the Londoners, for the most part, were strongly in favour of the Reformation. In Cheapside the Corporation presented their new queen with an English Bible. She kissed it, and promised to read diligently therein. In addressing her first Parliament she struck the keynote of her reign and thrilled the hearts of her hearers: "Nothing, no worldly thing under the sun, is so dear to me as the love and goodwill of my subjects." "My greatest desire," she said, "is to be the mother of my people." At her wish the Parliament restored the English Bible and Prayer-Book to their former place in public worship; for during the reign of her sister, their use had been forbidden.

Whilst tracing to her reign the beginning in so many particulars of the future greatness of England, we must not suppose that Elizabeth is entitled to all the glory of the things done in her name. It is true she constantly sought the greatness of England, but she often

sought it by crooked ways and winding passages. She loved to outwit her enemy, or set him by the ears with his rival. She held the balance between France and Spain, and cleverly played off one against the other. So skilfully, indeed, did she avoid, in steering the ship of the State, the rocks and shoals of fortune, that she secured for England almost unbroken peace for thirty years, during which her country constantly grew in prosperity and power.

This great queen was certainly one of the great builders of our empire. Although as a woman she was vain and fond of flattery in her idle moments with her courtiers and favourites, yet, as queen, in the council-chamber with her ministers she would tolerate nothing of the kind. She was blunt of speech herself, and required her ministers to be plain-spoken. Her greatness is seen in her unfailing judgment in the selection of her ministers and agents, and is still more conspicuous in the power she had over her people. She kept her finger steadily on the national pulse, and instinctively knew how far she could insist on her will, and when it was necessary to yield to public opinion. Loyalty and devotion to the queen served as a bond of union between her subjects, and when, at length, her realm was in danger from invasion, all Englishmen forgot their religious differences, and ranged themselves, shoulder to shoulder, round her throne.

Elizabeth also did a great work for her country by the steps she took to detach Scotland from France. No sooner had she come to the throne than she put herself at the head of the Protestant party in Scotland, and helped them to free their country from French

influence and interference. For at that time Queen Mary of Scotland was married to the King of France, and his troops were quartered at Edinburgh. But, with the help of Elizabeth's fleet and army, they were driven out of Scotland. This vigorous action on the part of Elizabeth had momentous results ; it put an end for ever to the alliance which had existed for centuries between France and Scotland ; and it created a cordial feeling between the Protestants of England and Scotland, and opened the way for the intimate union between the two peoples, which subsequently took place.

Elizabeth was also a good friend to the Dutch, who, like the Scots, had embraced the Reformed Faith with great ardour. When Philip II. came to the throne of Spain their country formed a part of his empire ; but on his attempting to set up among them a court similar to the Inquisition in Spain, they rose as one man against him. After an heroic struggle, lasting thirteen years, the Dutch gained their independence, and Holland became a new European state (1579).

They were not, however, left in the quiet enjoyment of their hard-won liberty. They had for some years to contend against the Duke of Parma, the first General of the age, who held the command of the Spanish armies in the Netherlands. Elizabeth for many years, whilst speaking fair words of peace, carried on a covert war with Philip by secretly aiding the Dutch with men and money, and by privately encouraging her bold mariners to plunder the Spaniards on the high seas. At last, Philip resolved to call England to account, but not before Elizabeth had given her people thirty years

of peace and progress. When, in 1585, the long peace came to an end, a great crisis had come upon our country, for on the issue of the war then opening its future destiny hung.

Before entering on the narrative of that great war, let us review the daring doings of our mariners during the long peace; for the result of a war mainly depends on the preparation made for it in the time of peace.

II. ELIZABETH'S "SEA-CAPTAINS"

HOW were the English so well prepared for battle when the day of trial came? How is it our seamen were able to cope so successfully with the great Spanish Armada? The reason is they had not been idle whilst the two nations were nominally at peace, but had kept up an irregular warfare, hardly distinguishable from piracy. Piracy, indeed, was followed as a profitable trade, especially by the seamen of Devon and Cornwall. There were few country gentlemen on the coasts of these counties that had not a swift cutter or two at sea on the look-out for plunder. For success the sailors must needs be skilful and bold, their ships handy, strong and swift.

There was a strange mixture of greed, revenge, and religion in the hearts of England's adventurous sons in their lawless proceedings on the seas. The Inquisition was responsible for most of the outrages committed on Spanish shipping. This cruel court had full authority in all Spanish ports. All heretics who came within their reach were looked upon as amenable to their laws, no matter what their country. Woe to the English seamen that fell into their clutches! Of those

imprisoned in the Inquisition dungeons few lived long enough ever again to breathe the fresh air. "Please, your lordship, to consider," writes an English merchant to our ambassador at the Court of Spain, "that I was taken prisoner by them of the Inquisition about twenty months past, and put into a little dark house about two paces long, laden with irons, without sight of sun or moon the said time of twenty months."

Tales were everywhere told among seamen of the murders and tortures with which Spain was disgracing her knightly fame and her ancient faith. Thousands of Protestant refugees from the Netherlands were seeking an asylum in England. And many of them were artisans fresh from the torture-chamber, who over the loom, or at the work-bench, recounted their sufferings and their wrongs to eager ears all over England, stirring up everywhere a deep-seated hatred of the Spanish name and nation. The shrieks of the tortured and the groans of the dying are still heard in faint echoes across the gulf of three centuries; but what must their effect have been upon the minds of the sailors who witnessed them, or who heard them described by those who had been racked? One undoubted fact will serve to establish the truth of those horrors. In 1563, Elizabeth's prime-minister stated that in the preceding year, twenty-six English subjects had been burnt in Spain.

Whilst the hearts of Englishmen were wrung with these tales of cruelty, and a spirit of revenge kindled within them, their imaginations were fired with the story of the Golden West, and the vast treasures of gold and silver which each year came pouring into Spain. No wonder there arose in the breasts of

adventurous Englishmen the resolution to share in the spoils of the West, and to rifle, if possible, the Spanish treasure-ships. To plunder a ship or town belonging to the hated Spaniard was, in their view, to take a just revenge for the cruelties of the Inquisition, to fight against misbelievers, and at the same time to enrich themselves.

Nothing is more remarkable than the magnificent contempt which the English mariners of that day felt for all enemies on the sea, no matter how superior their numbers. The daring, resource, and undaunted courage of the English buccaneers compel our admiration in spite of their lawless deeds. The Elizabethan heroes were the rough children of a rough age; nevertheless, they had that in them which made our later England possible. They laid the foundations of a greater greatness than their own. We cannot help feeling proud of their adventurous spirit, which seemed to laugh at dangers and difficulties, and to exult in attempting impossible feats. The story of John Oxenham will serve as an example of their daring and audacity.

In a ship of 140 tons, manned by seventy men from the western counties, John Oxenham set sail, not, as he said, to kill the goose that laid the King of Spain's golden eggs, but to rifle the nest in which they were laid. This he understood was the town of Panama. First, he brought his ship into a creek and covered her with boughs to conceal her. He then buried his cannon, except a few light pieces which could be carried. The whole company then set off to cross the Isthmus. On coming to a river that ran in his direction through the woods, Oxenham halted his men to build a pinnace,

45 feet long, and in this they sailed down the river and out into the open sea.

Under the guidance of a native, he sailed to the Island of Pearls, twenty-five leagues from Panama, and there he captured a barque sailing from Quito to Panama with a cargo of gold. A few days later, he took another freighted with silver. With this booty he returned in his pinnace to the river by which he had come, and hastened to recross the Isthmus to his ship. News of his doings had reached Panama, and a force of 100 armed men was sent in pursuit. Coming to a place where three streams met, they were at a loss which to take, until some hen's feathers came floating down one of the streams, and thus betrayed the route the English had taken. Fifty of our countrymen, however, succeeded in reaching the place where they had laid up their ship, only to find that it had been discovered and removed. Only one course was left open : to build canoes, and sail along the coast, and capture a barque. Before the canoes were ready, many of the men were laid low with fever. The rest were unable to resist the force sent against them, and in the end all were captured and condemned to die. Five boys, however, had their lives spared.

The story here told illustrates the spirit of reckless daring and the wonderful resource and dogged perseverance of the men who had the fortunes of England in their keeping in the days of Queen Elizabeth. But happily, most of Elizabeth's "sea-captains" combined with this spirit of daring and adventure more practical wisdom. The prince of her bold mariners was Francis Drake, whose good fortune was on a par with his

splendid daring. His portrait has been drawn for us by a master-hand in *Westward Ho!* as he stands with other great captains on Plymouth Hoe awaiting the arrival of the Spanish Armada : " Who is that short, sturdy, plain-dressed man, who stands with legs a little apart, and hands behind his back, looking up with keen grey eyes into the face of each speaker ? His cap is in his hands, so you can see the bullet head of crisp brown hair and the wrinkled forehead, as well as the high cheek bones, the short square face, the broad temples, the thick lips which are yet as firm as granite. A coarse plebeian stamp of man : yet the whole figure and attitude are full of boundless determination, self-possession, and energy ; and when at last he speaks a few blunt words, all eyes are turned respectfully upon him—for his name is Francis Drake."

In Drake Elizabeth found a man after her own heart ; a man who knew no fear, full of energy, and delighting in adventure and enterprise ; a man on whom she could in public vent her affected displeasure without any fear of incurring his resentment. For we must remember that these sea-rovers of Queen Elizabeth harried the shores of Spanish America and plundered Spanish ships, while England and Spain were professedly at peace. The queen, however, in her secret heart approved of their lawless doings, and dearly loved the lion's share of the plunder. She disowned them, and called them hard names in public, but she was quite willing they should continue to weaken and terrify the Spaniard and enrich herself, so long as no responsibility rested on her shoulders. To Francis Drake England still turns as the hero of her triumph

over Spain in their great struggle for the sovereignty of the seas.

III. ELIZABETH'S "KNIGHT OF THE SEAS"

FRANCIS DRAKE was born near Tavistock, in Devon, in the year 1545. Being brought up among seafaring people Francis took early to the sea. The master with whom he served his apprenticeship, admiring his character, left him his vessel in his will. He was then twenty-one. His first adventure ended in disaster. He joined his kinsman, the celebrated mariner, John Hawkins, in an expedition to the West Indies, and barely escaped with his life. After acquiring knowledge and skill by playing his part as seaman and pirate with varied success, he was placed at the head of an expedition with the design of swooping down upon Nombre de Dios, a Spanish town of Mexico, which "was then the granary of the West Indies, wherein the golden harvest brought from Panama was hoarded up till it could be conveyed to the royal treasury in Spain."

The means employed were, as usual in this age of wonders, ridiculously small for the end proposed. The fleet, placed under the command of our hero for this great enterprise, consisted of two ships no larger than many pleasure yachts of the present day, the *Pasha*, of seventy tons, and the *Swan*, of twenty-five. These two vessels were manned by seventy-three men all told, only one of whom had reached the age of thirty. Their exploits, even before their return, echoed from one side of the Atlantic to the other. It was in the course of this expedition that Drake was taken by one of the natives to a height, in the Isthmus of Panama, from

which he caught a glimpse of the great Southern Ocean, as the Pacific was then called. Falling on his knees, he besought God to grant him "life and leave once to sail an English ship in those seas."

Drake returned to England with a rich booty, and his name began to be famous. He was pricked on day and night, we are told, to set sail for the Southern Ocean. But he had to wait five years before he could start on his famous voyage round the world. At length the time and opportunity came. Towards the end of 1577 he stood on the deck of the *Pelican*—afterwards called the *Golden Hind*—ready to set sail from Plymouth harbour. His ship was hardly as big as a Channel schooner, and the remainder of his little squadron consisted of vessels still smaller. In his five small ships, however, lay the germ of the ocean empire of Great Britain.

The object of the expedition was kept as far as possible a secret. But the armament of his ships betokened a perilous undertaking, for they carried in abundance wildfire, chainshot, guns, pistols, bows, and other weapons. Before reaching Port Julian, in Patagonia, two of the vessels had to be abandoned. Having refitted at this port, Drake made for the Straits of Magellan, through which no Englishman had yet passed. Being without charts, he had to grope his way by means of the lead, which was kept in constant use. After a perilous passage of three weeks his three ships reached the open Pacific, where they were greeted with a violent storm, which swept them far to the south. The smallest vessel went to the bottom. Another losing sight of the *Pelican* and thinking it lost, set sail for England.

Drake, with his one ship and eighty men, having weathered the storm, and having seen "the Atlantic Ocean and the South Sea meet in a large and free scope," turned his prow northwards, determined to plunder the Spanish settlements along the unguarded coasts of Chili and Peru, and to share in the gold and silver extracted by the Spaniards from the mines of the Andes by the forced labour of the native Indians. At Valparaiso they rifled a galleon of its wedges of gold. Off the coast near Potosi, world-famed for its silver mines, they swept off the silver bars laid out on the piers, and eased a train of llamas descending from the hills of their silver freights. The *Pelican* entered the harbour of Lima, only to find that a richly-laden galleon had set sail for Panama a few days before.

Not a moment was lost. All sail was set and the chase begun. Drake promised his gold chain to the man who should first descry the golden prize. For eight hundred miles the *Pelican* flew on, and then the man at the mast-head claimed the promised chain. On coming near enough Drake, having first hailed the Spanish captain to strike his flag, "with a great piece shot her mast overboard, and the master being wounded with an arrow, the ship yielded." Besides gold, pearls, emeralds, and diamonds, their prize included twenty-six tons of silver bullion. With spoils of above half-a-million in value the daring adventurer sought the nearest way home.

Drake imagined that there was a passage to the north corresponding with Magellan's Straits in the south. He sailed along the coast of Mexico on the look-out for such a strait. Unsuccessful in this, he ran into a small

harbour on the coast of California, beached his ship, scoured her keel, which had grown foul with sea-weed and barnacles, and setting up forge and workshop, refitted her, with a month's labour, from stem to stern. Then he resumed his voyage, still keeping northwards in search of an opening. Reaching the forty-third parallel without success, he resolved on his homeward voyage by the Cape of Good Hope.

After passing across the chartless waters of the Pacific, he arrived at the end of three months at the Moluccas, or Spice Islands. His ship was again beached, scraped, and patched. His crew found refreshment in the fruits and turtles that abounded, and great delight in the countless fireflies that lit up the tropical forests at night. On putting again to sea they had the misfortune to strike on a concealed rock. All seemed lost. The crew were mustered, and to every man the chaplain administered the Sacrament. But the wind happily changing, "we hoisted our sails, and were lifted off into the sea again, for which we gave God thanks." Without further adventures, the *Pelican* sailed in triumph into Plymouth harbour in October, 1580, after an absence of three years, and after completing the circuit of the globe.

The romantic daring of Drake's voyage and the vastness of the spoil kindled great enthusiasm throughout the country. The queen, in honour of "her knight of the seas," dined on board his ship off Greenwich, conferred on him the honour of knighthood, wore in her crown the jewels he had offered her as a present, and appropriated the bulk of the booty. This is the response she made to the King of Spain's demand for the sur-

render of the freebooter and the restitution of the plunder. When Mendoza, the Spanish ambassador, threatened that "matters would come to the cannon," "she replied quietly, in her most natural voice, as if she were telling a common story," wrote Mendoza to his master, "that if I used threats of that kind she would fling me into a dungeon." It is surprising that open war between the two countries did not break out until 1585, four years later, especially when it was quite evident that the Spanish and English peoples wanted but a word from their sovereigns to fly like bull-dogs at each other's throats.

IV. BEARDING THE LION

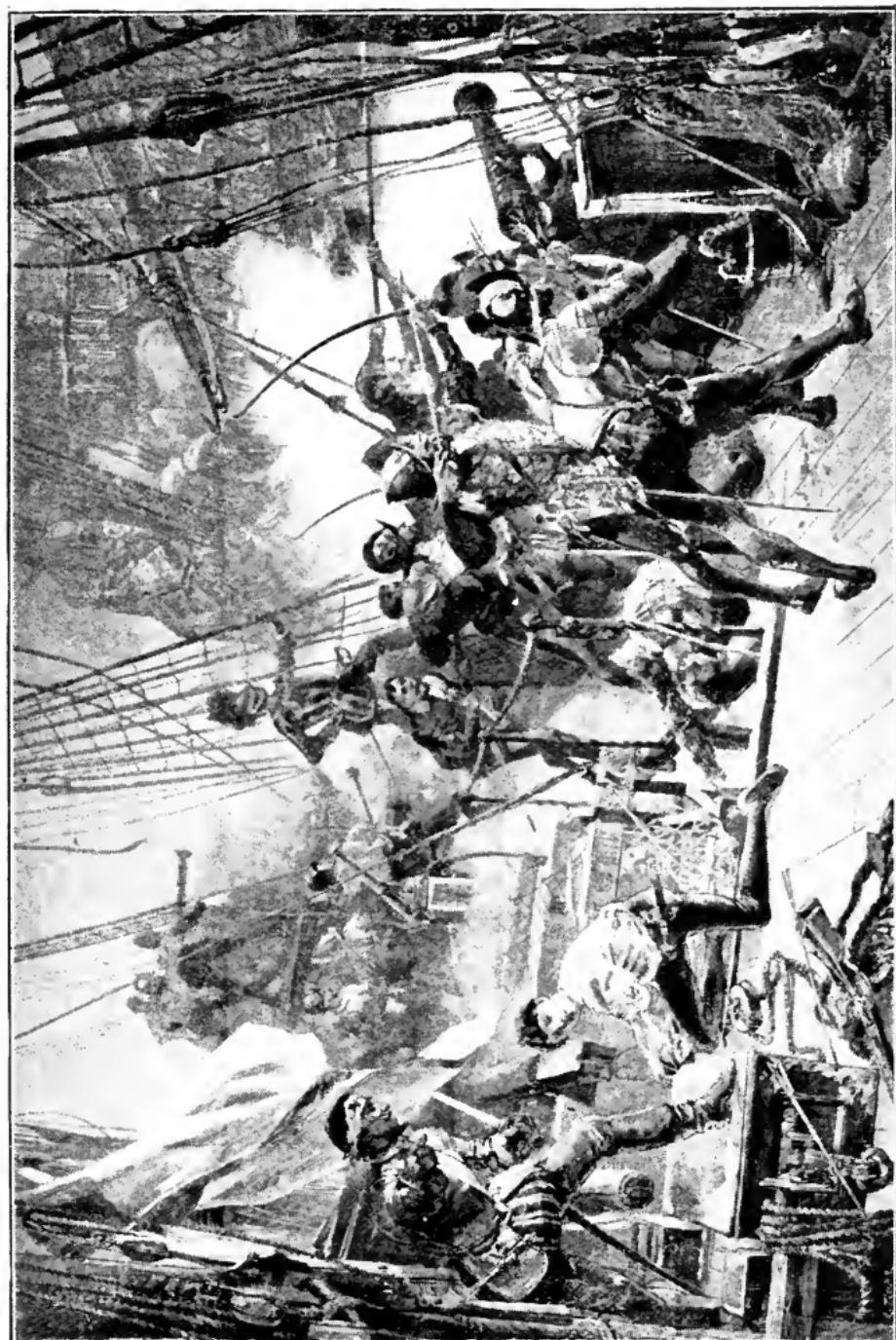
PHILIP began the war by laying an embargo upon every English ship in his ports (1585). Drake was commissioned to repair to the various ports and demand the release of the arrested ships. On hearing that the famous corsair was on the coast, all Spain became alarmed. In the course of this roving expedition Drake sailed to the Spanish Indies and played great havoc among the Spanish towns; for his name had become a terror and bore victory before it. The chief result of Drake's daring deeds was to set the world talking of the aggressive power of England on the sea and of the defenceless condition of the Spanish possessions in America.

The English were running up a long score which the King of Spain intended them to pay to the last farthing. But he was in no hurry to present his bill. He was determined to make such preparations for the invasion of England as to insure success. The headquarters of

his navy at this time was Lisbon ; for in 1580 Portugal was annexed to Spain, and so remained for sixty years. The harbour of Lisbon was crowded with great galleons taking in stores of "bread and wine enough to feed forty thousand men for a year." The dockyards were busy night and day in building and refitting ships of war. Drake begged permission to sail with a few handy war-vessels into the midst of this crowded shipping and deal a sudden blow. The ships would be only half-manned, and greatly encumbered, and the thicker they were crowded the less easy they would be able to move. So thought Drake, but he was over-ruled.

Drake, however, was placed in command of a small squadron (1587), to do as much damage as possible in the harbour of Cadiz, which was known to be crowded with transports and store-ships. The entrance was narrow with batteries on the sides, whilst in the harbour was a number of galleys on guard. His little fleet glided into the harbour unhurt, and fell instantly upon the only man-of-war there. The galleys flew to the rescue ; but in a short time the great galleon sank, and the galleys drew back. Meanwhile, the crews of the store-ships rowed to land, leaving their cargoes at the mercy of the English. There were many scores of these vessels loaded with wine, corn, dried fruits, biscuits—all going to Lisbon for the use of the Armada.

When Drake left the harbour his own ships were crammed with good things, and the harbour of Cadiz was filled with ransacked vessels all on fire. Well might the bold captain boast as he retired, that he "had singed the King of Spain's beard." It would take some months to repair the damage, and preclude the Armada from sailing that year.



FIGHTING THE SPANISH ARMADA.

Drake next moved off to the Azores in the hope of capturing some rich merchant vessel from the East Indies. Almost immediately hove in sight a Portuguese carrack from the East Indies, richly freighted. This great merchantman, the *San Philipe*, was soon on its unwilling way to England. The whole fleet arrived safely with their prize at Plymouth, "to their own profit and due commendation," says one of the happy company, "and to the great admiration of the whole kingdom."

And here, as our purpose is to tell the story of England's greatness, which so largely depends on the character of its great men, it is interesting to remark that, out of the spoils of this great prize, Sir Francis Drake, in the spirit of that local patriotism to which England owes so much, expended no small portion in supplying Plymouth with a plentiful supply of pure water. When the engineering difficulties had been overcome, and the day came for bringing in the river, "the mayor and his brethren, in their formalities, went out to meet it, and bid it welcome; the gentlemen of the corporation, accompanied with Sir Francis Drake, walked before, and the stream followed after into the town, to the great joy of all the people." The day of that peaceful triumph was probably the happiest of Drake's public life.

Whilst Philip is making his preparations on a magnificent scale, and getting together an Armada which he seemed justified in deeming "Invincible," our countrymen are not idle. War has long been seen on the horizon, and during the last eight years our men have been drilling and arming all over the country. Many thousands of them had seen service in the Low Countries,

in France, and in Ireland, and were skilled in the use of the modern weapons.

But our first line of defence was, and is, our navy. Elizabeth had mainly relied on privateers during the years of covert war, but these vessels were of small size, and would be totally unable to cope with the great Spanish galleons, although useful as auxiliaries. In the great fight with the Armada the brunt of the battle must fall on the Royal Navy. But there were only thirty-eight ships, of all sorts and sizes, carrying the queen's flag, and of these only thirteen above 400 tons. They were, however, in prime condition. The celebrated Sir John Hawkins, who was at the head of the naval administration, had taken such care in the equipment of the queen's ships, that they had no match in the world either for speed, safety, or soundness.

But how would the Catholics of England act in this great crisis? Would they throw in their lot with the Spaniards, who were coming to storm the stronghold of heretics, or stand true to their flag as Englishmen? The fortunes of England seemed placed in their hands; and to their honour, be it remembered, patriotism prevailed. Catholic gentry brought their vessels up alongside of the queen's ships and Catholic lords led their tenantry to the military muster at Tilbury. Not a word of treason or treachery was heard. Loyal England forgot its difference of creed. It knew only that the invader was at the gate.

The chief command of the fleet was given to Lord Howard of Effingham, with Drake as vice-admiral. Lord Henry Seymour and all the distinguished seamen, as Hawkins and Frobisher, served under them, with

9,000 hardy seamen. And so splendid was the spirit that animated the country that when the queen asked the Lord Mayor of London to supply fifteen ships and five thousand men, he requested her to accept double that number, both of ships and men.

The queen also displayed a martial spirit which won the hearts of her people. She visited the camp at Tilbury, and riding through the ranks with a general's truncheon in her hand, heartened the soldiers by her presence and her words. "My loving people," she said, "we have been persuaded by some that are careful of our safety to take heed how we commit ourselves to armed multitudes, for fear of treachery; but I assure you I do not desire to live to distrust my faithful and loving people. Let tyrants fear! I have always so behaved myself that, under God, I have placed my chiefest strength and safeguard in the loyal hearts and goodwill of my subjects. I know I have the body but of a weak and feeble woman, but I have the heart and stomach of a king, and of a king of England too; and think it foul scorn that Parma, or Spain, or any prince of Europe, should dare to invade the borders of my realm."

V. DEFEATING THE "INVINCIBLE"

THE long-expected Armada arrived off Plymouth Sound on Saturday, July 30th, 1588. The beacons along the coast had already told England that the hour of her trial was come. The Armada came on in the form of a crescent, seven miles in width, comprising one hundred and thirty ships, the majority being of great size "with lofty turrets like castles." The whole fleet was under the command of Medina Sidonia, who

had been ordered by the king to make direct for Dunkirk, and escort the Duke of Parma and his army to the shores of England. It had on board 8,000 seamen and 20,000 soldiers, and was provided with 2,500 cannons.

The little English fleet kept out of sight till the Armada had passed Plymouth Sound. On Sunday morning the Spaniards saw their enemy hovering about in their rear just out of cannon-shot. The contrast between the build and action of the ships soon became apparent. The English vessels moved with great rapidity, advancing to discharge a broadside, and dashing off to reload. Their guns also were handled with superior skill, firing, gun for gun, four shots to the Spaniards' one. As the Armada continued its slow course up the Channel, the English hung on its rear, resolved to avoid a general engagement at close quarters, to cut off stragglers, to take advantage of any accident, and "to pluck the feathers of the Spaniard one by one."

Thus day after day passed without any decisive result. Calms so prevailed that it took a week to reach Boulogne. "The enemy pursue me," wrote Sidonia to the Duke of Parma. "They fire upon me most days from morning till nightfall; but they will not close and grapple. I have given them every opportunity; I have purposely left ships exposed to tempt them to board; but they decline to do it, and there is no remedy, for they are swift and we are slow."

On Saturday, August 7th, the Armada reached Calais Roads, where the Spanish admiral dropped anchor, intending to remain there until Parma was ready to

cross. The English promptly let go their anchors at the same time two miles astern. The two fleets lay watching each other all the next day. At a council of war, called towards evening in Howard's cabin, it was resolved to convert eight vessels into fire-ships. These ships having been smeared with pitch, resin, and wildfire, and filled with combustibles, they were set on fire, and sent in the dead of night, with wind and tide, into the midst of the Spanish fleet. The galleons at once cut their cables, and in haste, fear and confusion put to sea, "happiest they who could first be gone, though few or none could tell which way to take."

They drifted with the wind in a long line off Gravelines. The hour for the English to close in was come. Here was fought a great battle from sunrise to sunset. By the end of the day three great galleons had sunk, three had drifted helplessly on to the Flemish coast, the rest remained afloat, but in a shattered condition, with sails torn and masts shot away. Four thousand brave Spaniards had fallen. The Spanish admiral was in despair, and having called a council of war resolved on retreating to Spain by sailing round the Orkneys. A terrible tempest wrecked many of these fugitive vessels on the Orkneys and the Hebrides. It is supposed that more than thirty of their ships perished off the coast of Ireland with the greater part of their crews.

In the end of September the Spanish admiral brought back to Spain fifty-three storm-shattered vessels. Out of thirty thousand men who set sail from Corunna in the proud Armada, twenty thousand at least never saw the shores of Spain again. In England one voice of joy

and thanksgiving rang throughout the land. The great victory had been won with the loss of only one vessel and very few men. The long-dreaded danger had passed away. The navy of the greatest power in the world had been smitten and shattered. The English seamen had emerged triumphant from the great fight with the proud consciousness that supremacy at sea was passing into their hands. A solemn thanksgiving was celebrated at St. Paul's Cathedral, where eleven of the Spanish ensigns were displayed as "palms of praise" for England's deliverance; and a medal was struck bearing the inscription, "God blew with His breath, and they were scattered."

The war with England and Spain was not brought to an end by the destruction of the "Invincible Armada," but in the subsequent years of the struggle there was no fear of invasion in England. The contest was almost wholly carried on at sea, and on our side consisted in preying upon the Spanish treasure-ships, or in making sudden descents upon the coasts of Spain or the West Indies. The story of this harrying sort of warfare is rather wearisome in its details, but there is one episode of the war the narrative of which no Englishman can listen to without a glow of pride.

The story was written by Sir Walter Raleigh soon after the event. In the spring of 1591 it was determined to send a fleet to the Azores, there to lie in wait for Philip's silver ships from the West. The vice-admiral of the fleet was Sir Richard Grenville, Raleigh's cousin, and his little ship of 500 tons bore the name of the *Revenge*. That year the silver fleet was delayed by heavy storms. This delay gave Philip time to send

a powerful escort of fifty-three ships, whilst in the period of waiting scurvy and fever broke out on the English ships. So unexpectedly did Philip's men-of-war appear, and so greatly did they outnumber the English squadron, that the commander signalled his captains to slip their cables and fly.

Many of Grenville's men had gone ashore for fresh water; and whilst he waited to take them aboard, the opportunity of escape was lost. So he determined to fight his way, if possible, through the Spanish squadrons. As the *Revenge* boldly sailed on, the foremost ships of the Spanish fleet stood aside to let her pass. Then the *San Felipe*, one of the largest galleons afloat, stood in her course, and four other galleons closed around, whilst all the Spanish navy looked on. The battle began by the *Revenge* sending a broadside of bar-shot into the hull of the *San Felipe* just between wind and water. The galleon was too high to bring her great guns to bear upon her little antagonist, and sheered off to let the other ships of lower build take her place. The great galleons closed and grappled. Volleys of musketry swept the decks of the *Revenge*. Again and again the Spaniards tried to force their way on board, only to be hurled back into the sea. Hour after hour the unequal fight went on till the decks of the *Revenge* were like shambles. Through the rest of the day, and all the night, the death-struggle raged unceasing. Fifteen of the enemy's ships, Raleigh tells us, took part in this amazing contest. When day dawned, the *Revenge* was riddled with shot, Grenville mortally wounded, and hardly a man still alive not seriously wounded.

After fighting for fifteen hours Sir Richard ordered



SIR RICHARD GRENVILLE ON THE REVENGE.

the ship to be scuttled. "Trust to God," he said, "and to none else. Lessen not your honour now by seeking to prolong your lives by a few days or hours." But his men thought they had done enough for honour, and hauled down the flag of St. George. The Spaniards showed their admiration of the heroism they had witnessed by doing all they could for the remnant still alive. They carried the hero on board the *San Pablo*, where he died three days later. His last words were, "Here die I, Richard Grenville, with a joyful and quiet mind, having ended my life like a true soldier that has fought for his country, queen, religion, and honour," or as Tennyson puts it—

I have fought for Queen and Faith like a valiant man and true ;

I have only done my duty as a man is bound to do :
With a joyful spirit I Sir Richard Grenville die !

"The last fight of the *Revenge*," Froude tells us, "struck a deeper terror, though it was but the action of a single ship, into the hearts of the Spanish people; it dealt a more deadly blow upon their fame and naval strength than the destruction of the Armada itself, and in the direct results which arose from it, it was scarcely less disastrous."

After the death of Philip, in 1598, the war was allowed to languish, but no formal treaty of peace was concluded. As soon as Elizabeth felt her hands free from the struggle with Spain, she turned her attention to Ireland, which had never yet been completely conquered, and which at this time was in revolt.

VI. SETTING IRELAND IN ORDER

QUEEN ELIZABETH has now but five years to reign. At her death England is about to expand into Great Britain, by the union of the crowns of England and Scotland in the person of James I. And now in the last years of Elizabeth, a strenuous endeavour is made to bring the sister island under the authority of the English crown, and to make it an integral part of the dominion of England.

Ireland was nominally conquered in the reign of Henry II., but the authority of the English Government up to the accession of Henry VIII. was limited to the "English Pale," which comprised the districts of Drogheda, Dublin, Wexford, Waterford, and Cork. Often, in fact, the royal authority within the pale was merely nominal. As late as the reign of Henry VII. we find Ireland really independent of the English crown. The Earl of Kildare, indeed, was openly defiant. "All Ireland," complained the King's Council, "cannot rule this man." "Then shall he rule all Ireland," said the king, and forthwith made him "Lord Deputy."

To Henry VIII. this easy indifference was highly distasteful, and he resolved to be master in his own kingdom. He took care on appointing an Englishman as Lord Deputy, in 1535, to send with him a train of artillery, which soon brought the rebellious lords to their knees. The castles which had so long raised their heads in defiance were soon battered to pieces. At the end of seven years the power of the Crown was acknowledged from one end of the island to the other;

but much yet remained to be done before Ireland was brought under real subjection.

Henry's conquest by force of arms was followed by an honest endeavour to civilize and to put an end to anarchy. But in this endeavour no regard was paid to Irish customs and traditions, still less to Irish pre-possessions and prejudices ; the people were expected to conform to English usage and law. It is true Henry VIII. directed that these changes should be carried out in a patient, conciliatory spirit ; nevertheless, English ideas, not Irish, were to shape the life of the Irish nation. Even in matters of religion this principle was to hold good. Not a single Irishman wanted the abolition of pilgrimages, the destruction of images, or the reform of public worship ; but attempts were made both in the reign of Henry VIII. and his successor to force the reformed religion upon them. The consequence was all political parties in Ireland set aside their old differences and united as one people against the Crown. For the first time in their history the Irish within the Pale and those without drew together as one nation.

Towards the end of Elizabeth's reign, Irish discontent, which had long smouldered, flamed up into open rebellion. After the Earl of Essex had miserably failed in his attempt to put it down, the work was taken in hand by Lord Mountjoy ; and so ably did he conduct the war that at the end of three years, in spite of the landing of a Spanish force to aid the insurgents, the rebellion was at an end. The policy of Henry VIII. was resumed, and an attempt made to obliterate every vestige of Irish law and custom. However, a genuine

endeavour was made to present the English Government to the Irish in the light of a strong and impartial power, capable of securing justice for the poor and the weak, and of curbing the lawlessness of the chiefs and their unruly henchmen.

Signs were beginning to appear of a disposition to accept the new order of things, when the English Government, instead of letting "patience have her perfect work," proceeded to revolutionary and arbitrary measures. Seven years after Elizabeth's death, it was resolved to plant in Ulster a colony of English and Scotch upon the lands forfeited in the late rebellion. Two-thirds of the northern province were declared confiscated to the Crown, and the lands thus gained were distributed among English and Scotch settlers. These men were thrifty and industrious, and in their hands Ulster became the most prosperous district in Ireland.

Though in the long run Ireland has profited by the industry and example of these men, their coming did not make for peace. The Irish sullenly withdrew to the land which had been left them, and nursed in secret a spirit of resentment against the new-comers and of rebellion against their rulers. The colonists differed from the native Irish in race and religion, and were regarded as aliens, forming in fact "an English garrison." Bad blood long existed between the two races. The memories of old injuries long kept them, like oil and water, from blending; indeed, it can hardly be said that their descendants have yet coalesced. But Time is a great healer, and ere long we may hope to see the Irish a united people, well affected to their fellow-subjects in the sister island.

VII. NATIONAL PROGRESS

As the object of war is to secure the blessings of peace, we will now turn from the brave doings of our sailors in the reign of the great Elizabeth to see what progress our nation had made in the arts of peace—in manufactures, in commerce, and in the exploration of new lands. Queen Elizabeth is entitled to the merit of having secured the peace and order so essential to industrial activity and commercial enterprise. The rise of London as the great centre of the world's commerce dates from the capture and sack of Antwerp by the Duke of Parma (1585). On the ruin of this famous city, the thousand ships which had sought annually the waters of the Scheldt now discharged their cargoes on the wharves of Amsterdam and the port of London. No longer did the looms of Flanders make fine cloth from English wool. The Flemish manufacturers, leaving the grass to grow in their fine old cities, transferred their capital and their arts to London, Norwich, and Bristol. Flemish artisans also turned their faces to the happy Island where they could toil in safety, live in peace, and enjoy the fruit of their labours.

The English in the course of Elizabeth's reign sought outlets for their commercial activity in all quarters. Even before she came to the throne a successful endeavour had been made to find new fields of trade. Five years before her accession an expedition, consisting of three small ships, under Sir Hugh Willoughby, left England with the view of discovering a sea-way to China by sailing round the north of Europe and Asia. Two of the ships were afterwards found frozen, with their crews

and their hapless commander, on the coast of Lapland ; but the third, the *Edward Bonaventura*, under Richard Chancellor, succeeded in reaching the White Sea, where, at a town at the mouth of the Dwina, he met a Russian governor, who sent him on to Moscow. The Tsar was pleased to see him, and gave permission to English merchants to trade with Russia in choice furs, sables, ermines, and the like. On Chancellor's return to England the Muscovy Company was formed for this purpose.

Elizabeth encouraged the formation of merchant companies, shared in their speculations, and threw over them her protecting arm. Explorers also of new lands and new routes received her warm support. It was the dream of her day that a short way to China and the East might be found by passing round the north of America. This is the celebrated "North-West Passage," to find which Martin Frobisher, John Davis, and many others threaded their way among the icebergs on the northern coasts of America, being fully persuaded, as Frobisher said, "that it was the only thing of the world, that was yet left undone, by which a notable mind might be made famous and fortunate." Though these men failed in their immediate object, they added considerably to our geographical knowledge, whilst training themselves to fight for Old England.

The names of famous seamen are sprinkled over the map of the Arctic regions. Frobisher gave his name to a bay, and Davis, who succeeded him, to an adjoining strait. Hudson's Strait and Bay recall the name of Henry Hudson, who, in the reign of James I., made three voyages in search of a North-West Passage. His fate

is the saddest that the brave men who attempted this discovery have suffered. The crew mutinied, and Hudson, with his son and seven others, was turned adrift in a small boat and never afterwards heard of (1611). Five years later Baffin explored the vast bay named after him.

The glory of England in the reign of Elizabeth is as conspicuous in the fields of literature as in its conquests on the seas. One name stands out beyond all others—that of William Shakspeare, poet and dramatist. Nothing in human nature seems to have escaped his keen perception, or to have lain beyond the sphere of his sympathies. He speaks to us in his dramas through his characters, and his characters range over all mankind. But we have no difficulty in seeing in his historical plays what a genuine love and admiration he had for his native land :—

This royal throne of kings, this sceptred isle,
This earth of majesty, this seat of Mars,
This other Eden, demi-paradise ;
This fortress, built by Nature for herself,
Against infection and the hand of war ;
This happy breed of men, this little world ;
This precious stone set in the silver sea,
Which serves it in the office of a wall,
Or as a moat defensive to a house,
Against the envy of less happier lands ;
This blessed plot, this earth, this realm, this England.

No Englishman can read Shakspeare's historical plays without his patriotism burning brighter, without feeling uplifted at the deeds of our ancestors, without thanking God for the blessings He has showered upon our favoured land.

CHAPTER III

The First English Colonies

WE are now about to follow the fortunes of England in her endeavours to extend her borders by planting colonies in North America. The attempt was first made in the reign of Elizabeth. The Spaniards had already taken possession of Mexico and much of America to the south of that country ; but their great object was to enrich themselves with the treasures of the mines rather than to found colonies as homes for their countrymen. Our first attempts at colonization were ruined by the same vicious principle. As long as the craving for gold and silver, and the desire to grow rapidly rich, and then return home animated the minds of our colonists, misfortunes dogged their footsteps and ended in utter ruin. It is now admitted on all sides that the English have surpassed all nations in the art of colonizing. But their success has grown out of repeated failure, which is always ready to yield lessons of wisdom to those who are willing to learn.

Before Elizabeth ended her reign we find that sound views began to dawn upon England as to the right use of colonies and their advantage to the mother-country. "The very name of colony," says an author of her reign, "imports a reasonable culture and planting before

a harvest or vintage can be expected. Though gold and silver have enriched the Spanish exchequer, yet their storehouses hold other and greater wealth. Their ginger, hides, tobacco, and other merchandise, yield far more profit to the generality of the Spanish subjects than the mines do. *That is the richest land which feeds most men.* Do we not see that the silks, calicoes, drugs and spices of the East swallow up all the mines of the West?"

Gradually men came to see that the value of a colony is not to be measured merely by its gold and silver, that it depends still more upon the salubrity of its climate and the fertility of its soil. When these advantages may be had, and the territory is practically unoccupied, there new homes may be founded for the surplus population of the mother-country, and its commerce by their means greatly extended. Our first colonies offered these advantages. They also enabled conscientious men and women to live in the free exercise of their religious faith and worship at a time when such freedom was denied them in the old country.

I. SIR WALTER RALEIGH

OUR colonies we ought to regard as a simple extension of the English state and nation over new territory. The colonists should be regarded in the fullest sense as Englishmen. Sir Walter Raleigh was the first Englishman to set a true value upon colonial possessions, and to take a true view of their relation to the mother-country. Speaking of the first colony, which he had attempted to plant in America but which had failed to

take root, he said, "I shall yet live to see it an English nation."

When the New World was first discovered there was no great demand in Europe for more elbow-room. When Cabot failed to bring back spices, gold, or pearls he was sent about his business. New lands were only valued by the state for the wealth that could be transported into the ruling country. But Raleigh had more enlightened views. He wished to see happy English homes on the other side of the Atlantic, and not merely settlements temporarily occupied by Crown officials for the purpose of extracting the precious metals from the rocks by the compulsory labour of the native Indians or imported Negroes.

The first serious attempt to plant an English colony in the New World was made, in 1583, by Sir Humphrey Gilbert, a step-brother of Raleigh, but without success. After being beaten about by storms and losing three of his five vessels, he found it necessary to return to England. Gilbert, who was sailing in the *Squirrel*, a bark of ten tons only, was entreated by the captain of the *Hind* to come on board his vessel; but he was unwilling to forsake his little company with whom he had encountered so many storms and perils. He was last seen sitting calmly in the stern of his doomed craft with a book in his hand; and on the *Hind* coming within hailing he cried out, "Be of good heart, my friends, we are as near to heaven by sea as by land." That same night the lights of the *Squirrel* were suddenly quenched.

Next year Raleigh sent out two vessels, with instructions to explore the coasts and fix upon a suitable place for

a colony. They examined the shores of what is now named Carolina, and returned with a glowing account of the land: "The trees had not their paragons in the world, the luxuriant vines, as they clambered up the loftiest cedars, formed graceful festoons laden with grapes. . . . The people were most gentle, loving, and faithful, void of all guile and treason, and such as lived after the manner of the golden age." Elizabeth named these enchanting regions *Virginia*, and soon more than a hundred colonists were on the way to take possession. They came, however, not to till the soil and make new homes for themselves, but in the hope of finding gold and returning to England rich men. Failing in their search for gold, they took advantage of a visit from Drake with his fleet to return to England, taking with them a sample of the strange herb they had learnt from the Indians to smoke. Sir Richard Grenville, who soon afterwards arrived in the deserted colony with fresh supplies, left a handful of men there as a garrison to retain possession.

Raleigh, undismayed at the ill success of his venture, determined to send another body of emigrants, including women and children, with all things needful for farming (1587). Of the men who had been left as a garrison no vestige was found. The fort was in ruins, grass was growing out of the floors of the houses, and wild deer were feeding in the neglected gardens. This colony also was doomed to perish. Owing to the Armada, which put all else out of hand if not out of mind, they were left too long without supplies from home; for a new colony requires to be nursed for some time by the mother-country. And when at last, through

the patriotic exertions of Raleigh, a relief party arrived, not a white face was to be seen. Thus came to an end, for the present, the attempt to colonize Virginia.

Raleigh had next some great scheme in Guiana to enhance the greatness of his country. The golden stream which was ceaselessly flowing into the Tagus and the Guadalquivir, he hoped to divert, in part at least, to the Thames. England would then be no longer overmatched by Spain. The tract of country where Raleigh hoped to find the means of raising England still higher among the nations was situated somewhere above the head of the delta of the Orinoco. There, it was commonly reported by the Indians, was the famous city of *El Dorado*, whose streets were paved with gold, whose king appeared on festive occasions with his bare limbs sprinkled with gold-dust.

The extraordinary wealth gained by the Spaniards in Mexico and Peru made the most incredulous tales seem credible. Raleigh—wise man that he was—certainly believed the report, and the spring of 1595 saw him on the seas bound for the land of gold. He entered the Orinoco, explored its delta, had friendly dealings with the natives, heard vague reports from them of the Golden City, and ascertained, as he thought, the whereabouts of a rich gold mine. He returned to England, however, empty-handed, almost the sole believer in the existence of *El Dorado* or even the rich gold mine.

On the accession of James I., in 1603, evil days came upon Raleigh. He was condemned to be executed for treason against the new king, but the evidence was so dubious that he was kept a prisoner in the Tower, where he occupied his enforced leisure in writing a History of the

World. After a confinement of thirteen years he prevailed upon the king to let him try his fortune once more in Guiana, undertaking not to attack the Spaniards in his search for gold. A fight occurred with the Spanish, the search proved unavailing, and Raleigh returned a broken man. At the instance of Spain, James ordered his execution (1618). This truckling to Spain caused every Englishman to hang down his head and to long for a return of the days of Elizabeth.

When the time came for Raleigh to pay the forfeit of his life, he turned to the executioner and asked to see the axe. "I prithee," said he, as the man held back, "let me see it; dost thou think I'm afraid of it?" He ran his finger down the edge, saying to the sheriff, "This is sharp medicine; but it is a sound cure for all diseases." He then knelt down and laid his head upon the block. Some one objected that he ought to lay his face towards the east: "What matter," he said, "how the head lie, so the heart be right?" Then, at two strokes, the wise, white head fell. On the fly-leaf of his Bible he had written the following lines:—

Even such is time that takes on trust
Our youth, our joys, and all we have,
And pays us but with age and dust;
Who in the dark and silent grave,
When we have wandered all our ways,
Shuts up the story of our days!
But from this earth, this grave, this dust,
The Lord shall raise me up, I trust.

II. COLONIZATION OF VIRGINIA

WHILST Raleigh was languishing in the Tower the great dream of his life was becoming a reality. There sailed from England, at the end of 1606, a little company, which formed the first offshoot of the English nation destined to take root in America. To the emigrants it was promised that they and their children should continue to be Englishmen. After a tedious voyage the expedition arrived at the mouth of Chesapeake Bay. They gave to the headlands between which they sailed the names of Cape Harry and Cape Charles, in honour of the two sons of James I. Ascending a stream, which they named the James River, they proceeded to build on it the town which is known as Jamestown to this day, and which proved the first permanent settlement of the English in the New World.

A series of misfortunes and misdoings brought the young colony to the verge of destruction. They arrived too late in the season for the seed that they had brought with them to be sown with any hope of reaping a harvest. And the people themselves were, for the most part, mere adventurers who had never hardened their hands with work. In six months half of the little company were swept away by disease, wretched food, and other hardships. "Our drink," say they, "was unwholesome water; our lodgings, castles in the air." Happily, winter, instead of completing their misery, brought relief in the shape of numbers of wild fowl.

The head and heart of the whole colony, a celebrated Captain Smith, had the misfortune, whilst exploring the country round, to fall into the hands of Indians.

“I was brought,” says Smith, “to the village where the great chief Powhatan has his spacious wigwam. There they performed a war-dance around me, every one in the ring brandishing his weapons. One of my captors having been wounded, I cried out that at Jamestown I had some medicine to cure him. They would not let me fetch it; but I was permitted to send a letter, in which I asked my friends to put certain things under a great rock outside the little town. To the astonishment of the Indian messengers who delivered my letter the things I had promised were found by them the next day at the appointed place. On their return every one was full of wonder because of the ‘talking leaf.’ They thought it was all due to magic, and met in council to decide my fate.

“After a long and solemn talk there was a dead silence, whilst a huge stone was dragged into the centre, and I was forced to kneel down beside it, Indians standing around with their heavy clubs. At this critical moment the chief’s daughter, Pocahontas, a young girl of ten or twelve, flew to my side, and, spreading her arms over me, pleaded for my life. Another council was held, and I was set free.”

Returning to Jamestown, Smith found the colony reduced to forty men, and they had resolved to abandon the place. Smith infused new hope and courage, and the child who had rescued him from death came with her companions, from time to time, with baskets of corn. Another party of emigrants arrived in the spring of 1608, but most of these were mere reckless adventurers, whose one object was to find gold. Captain Smith wrote home entreating the Council to send no more

such worthless emigrants, but honest carpenters, husbandmen, gardeners, fishermen, blacksmiths, and masons, and "diggers up of trees' roots." "Nothing," said he, "is to be won here but by honest labour." Under Smith's rule the colony passed safely through another winter, and then an explosion of gunpowder rendered him for a time useless, and he returned to England. Anarchy ensued, and within six months the colony of four hundred and ninety men was reduced to a miserable remnant of sixty persons, supporting themselves on roots and berries.

These men resolved to make for Newfoundland in the hope of finding a passage home in the boats of the fishermen. They had actually quitted the spot which had been for three years the centre of their hopes, and had just reached the mouth of the river when they were astonished by the sight of a ship coming up to meet them. The ship proved to belong to Lord de la Warr's squadron, which had arrived from England in time to save the settlement from ruin. The arrival of Lord de la Warr was the turning-point in the early history of Virginia. He brought provisions for a year, and by his wisdom and authority secured peace and order. The dawn had at last appeared, and the future history of the colony is, on the whole, one of steady progress.

The first step onward was made when, in 1611, a few acres of land were assigned to each settler for his orchard and garden and other private uses. Hitherto the land had been cultivated for the good of the whole colony, and the result had been reluctant labour and waste of time. The rights of private property being now recognised, a great incentive was given to steady industry.

The second step was gained when six vessels arrived bearing a freight of three hundred emigrants of the right stamp, with a herd of cattle. "Lord, bless England, our sweet native country," was the morning and evening prayer of these emigrants. "Take four of the best kingdoms of Christendom," as one expressed it, "and put them altogether; they may no way compare with this new country, either for commodities or goodness of the soil."

The colonists for some little time lost their labour in planting vineyards. But on devoting their chief attention and care to the culture of tobacco, they made the third step on the way to prosperity. Very soon the fields, the gardens, the public squares, even the sides of the streets of Jamestown, were planted with tobacco for the English market.

Few women had as yet dared to cross the Atlantic; but now the growing prosperity of the colony induced ninety women to throw in their lot with their countrymen in Virginia, and others soon followed. They were not long in finding husbands. But the most romantic marriage was that of John Rolfe, who first converted his bride to Christianity and then wedded her. His wife was none other than the Indian chief's daughter, Pocahontas, who had saved the life of Captain Smith.

Such was the eventful history of Virginia at the outset. From the many blunders we made in trying to found this, our first colony, we learned how to secure success in similar undertakings in future. Virginia served as our school of wisdom and experience in planting colonies; we had still to learn by losing her and her sister states how to keep colonies within the empire after planting them.

III. THE PILGRIM FATHERS

OUR second successful attempt at colonisation, made soon afterwards, resulted in the settlement of *New England*. This colony was founded by a little company of earnest persons, bound closely together by religious ties, who went out there as pilgrims in search of a land where they could enjoy religious freedom. These pilgrims were extreme "Puritans," as those persons were called who thought that the Reformation had not gone far enough, and that much remained to be done to *purify* the Church from error. On the whole, the Puritans were men of earnest piety, fearlessly true to their convictions, who have left their mark of sober earnestness, seriousness, and solidity upon the character of the typical Englishman.

The Bible was their handbook of religion, and they were never tired of reading and discussing its pages. To their children they gave odd Jewish names, simply because they were in the Bible, and their common talk was garnished with Biblical phrases. This intimate knowledge of the Bible and its language was, to a large extent, shared in by Englishmen, generally, at the time when our first colonies were planted; whilst those who left our shores carried with them the Bible as their most precious treasure. It so happened that, in 1611, about the time when Englishmen were finding a footing in Virginia, appeared "the authorised version of the Bible," which has ever since remained the common inheritance of our race in every quarter of the world. Its constant use by all creeds and classes, from the moment of its appearance, has made it the standard

of our language and the rule of our life. The English Bible is at once the symbol of our union as Englishmen, wherever we may go, and the most potent means of keeping us united both in thought and speech, however widely we may be scattered.

When James I. came to the throne he found the Puritans a strong religious party, with strong religious convictions. He was exceedingly bitter against them, and said, "I will make them conform, or harry them out of the land." And out of the land the more zealous resolved to go. They went forth as pilgrims seeking a place where they might worship God in the way they thought right. The pilgrims first settled in Holland ; but they could not feel at home there, for neither the language nor the manners of the Dutch were agreeable to them. At last they were moved to make real English homes for themselves across the Atlantic.

A little company of one hundred and twenty, including men, women and children, set sail from Plymouth in the *Mayflower*, bound for the country round the River Hudson. After a long and boisterous voyage, being swept by the wind past the entrance to the Hudson, they finally moored in the harbour of Cape Cod, on the most barren part of Massachusetts, in the coldest and dreariest part of the year (1620). There were none to show them kindness or bid them welcome. But they were not disheartened.

"We are well weaned," wrote their minister, "from the delicate milk of the mother-country, and inured to the difficulties of a strange land ; the people are industrious and frugal. We are knit together as a body in a most sacred covenant of the Lord by virtue whereof we

hold ourselves strictly tied to all care of each other's good and of the whole. It is not with us as with men whom small things can discourage."

It was well, for cruel hardships were in store for them. The spot for the settlement had first to be chosen. Whilst the carpenter was repairing their shallop, a party landed and explored the country, then buried in snow. After several days spent in this way, they discovered nothing of value but a heap of maize in a deserted Indian village. This little stock, however, was invaluable to the settlers, as, by some extraordinary oversight, they had left all their seed corn behind them. Many Indian graves were scattered about the country but no Indians were seen. They afterwards learnt that a pestilence had swept off all the Indians in that part, so that no difficulty arose from the hostility of the natives.

As soon as the shallop was ready a party explored the coast. The cold was severe ; the spray of the sea froze as it fell on them, and made their clothes like coats of steel. On the third day, the pilot of the boat, who had been in these regions before, assures them that he knows of a good harbour which might be reached before nightfall. After some hours' sailing, a storm of snow and rain breaks upon them : the sea swells, the rudder breaks, the boat must now be steered with oars ; the storm increases and night is at hand. To reach the harbour before dark, as much sail as possible is borne ; the mast breaks into three pieces and the sail falls overboard, but the tide is favourable. As darkness sets in, they enter a fair sound, and step ashore wet, and cold, and weak.

When the morning dawned, the explorers discovered that they were on an island in the midst of a spacious and landlocked bay. Here they remained for a day to recruit, and as the next day was the "Christian Sabbath," they felt bound to rest and "keep it holy." On Monday the exploring party made their way to the mainland. The granite boulder on which they stepped as they landed became an object of veneration to their descendants. Fragments of it were treasured up in the homes of New England with a reverence such as in Catholic countries is bestowed upon the relics of the saints. Here the "Pilgrim Fathers" resolved to settle. They called the town, which in time grew up on this spot, New Plymouth, in memory of the port from which they had last set sail.

No holiday task lay before the settlers. Huts had to be built in the intervals of rain and snow. A commencement was made on Christmas Day, 1620. "That day," says the journal of the exiles, "we went on shore, some to fell timber, some to saw, some to rive, and some to carry. So no man rested all that day." The work was often interrupted by inclement weather, but they struggled manfully on, and by the middle of February sixteen log-huts were ready for the reception of so many families. Meanwhile death was busy among them, and before summer began one-half of their little company was taken. At last the remnant of the emigrants was sufficiently established to dispense with the *Mayflower*. In April the vessel, which had been their home for so many months, sailed away for England.

The progress of the population was very slow. The lands in the vicinity were not fertile; and at the end of

ten years the colony contained no more than three hundred souls. They had, however, struck deep root. At last the time came for a large increase of their numbers from home. During those eleven years (1629-40) when England was left without a Parliament to defend its liberties, when the Puritans were suffering from oppressive laws concerning religious worship, the colonies grew apace. Before the assembling of the Long Parliament, in 1640, two hundred emigrant ships had crossed the Atlantic, and twenty thousand Englishmen had found a refuge in the West—and these, not the waifs and strays, the idle, the bankrupt, the worthless, but men of means and character, seeking freedom to serve God according to their conscience.

As the ships bore them away out of sight of their native land, most of them remembered it, not as the scene of their sufferings from intolerance, but as the home of their fathers. "Farewell, dear England," rose from every heart. They regarded themselves as going forth to found a Church rather than a colony. They desired, in fact, "only the best," as sharers in their enterprise; men going forth from their fatherland not urged by want or enticed by the lust of gold and the love of adventure, but moved by the fear of God and zeal for His service. In the depth of the misery and desolation, disease and death, which awaited them in their new homes, they accounted themselves blessed beyond all mankind, as "the selected instruments of God to kindle in the wilderness the beacon of pure religion."

CHAPTER IV

Fight for Law and Liberty

IN telling the story of England's greatness it is now necessary to turn to that great national struggle between king and Parliament, which began towards the end of James I's. reign, and which was not finally settled till one king had been beheaded and another had fled the country. Unless our forefathers had found the means of making law and liberty secure in the land there would have been no story of national greatness to tell. No nation can make much progress unless the people are free to make the most of their powers, and are able to live under the protection of the laws, so as to enjoy the fruit of their labours.

There can be no real liberty where all are not equal before the law, still less where any one is above the law, however highly placed that one may be. The law of England admits of no absolute ruler in this realm. The sovereign is bound to rule according to law. The rebellion in the time of Charles I. was caused by the king's attempt to break away from this restraint, and its object was to force him and his successors to keep within the limits of the law.

The problem to be solved was how best to secure liberty to the people, and at the same time stability

to the Government. Many mistakes had to be made, much disorder to be endured, much blood to be shed, before a happy settlement was found. That settlement came with William and Mary, who accepted the crown on the conditions set forth in the Bill of Rights, which laid down the principles of the English monarchy, and made it sufficiently clear that the king exists for the people, not the people for the king.

I. THE RIGHT "TO QUESTION THE KING'S SERVANTS"

AT the present day the sovereign always chooses, as prime minister, one who commands the confidence of the most numerous party in the House of Commons, and leaves him to nominate the other ministers, all of whom are responsible to Parliament for the way in which they discharge their respective duties. But in the time of the Tudors and early Stuarts, the sovereign regarded the ministers as his servants, accountable to him only. Whilst this state of things lasted it was possible for the king to keep in office a minister who had forfeited the confidence of Parliament, and who in their opinion had acted either unwisely, unjustly, or corruptly. This was the cause of the first quarrel between Charles I. and his Parliament. The king's chief minister was Villiers, Duke of Buckingham, who stood high in the king's favour, but was distrusted and disliked by nearly all else.

The Commons complained bitterly of the ways in which the king had raised money, and for this illegal action they held his chief minister responsible. The lead in this matter was taken by Sir John Eliot, who

is worthy of a foremost place in our memory as a patriot and martyr. He fixed, from the very outset of his career, on the responsibility of the royal ministers to Parliament as the pivot on which English liberty turned.

"I see," wrote the king to the House, "that you aim at my chief minister. Certain it is that I did command him to do what he hath done. I would not have you question my servants, much less one that is so near to me." The question at stake was one worth fighting for. And it took a long and fierce fight before the right of Parliament to "question the king's servants" was admitted as one of the corner-stones of our Constitution.

Closely bound up with this right was that of free speech in Parliament. In our day every member of Parliament knows that he is only responsible to Parliament itself for anything he may say within the House; but formerly this was not so. Charles I. interfered once and again with free discussion in the House of Commons. The doors of the House had no sooner been closed, on the dissolution of Parliament, in 1629, than the king proceeded to call certain members to account for their late speeches.

Sir John Eliot and nine others were sent to the Tower. Most of them made their peace with the king, but Eliot, when brought before the Council, boldly replied: "I refuse to answer, because I hold that it is against the privilege of the House of Parliament to speak of anything which was done in the House." A word of submission from Eliot would at any time have set him free to revisit his Cornish home and the dear ones it con-

tained. But that word he would not speak. He thought that freedom of speech in Parliament was a privilege too priceless to the nation to be bartered for his individual freedom.

Eliot's many friends were struck with admiration at his patriotic self-devotion, and two of them, Valentine and Strode, inspired by his example, refused to make their submission to the king. These men saw clearly that the liberty of Englishmen would never be safe from invasion by the sovereign, that his power would always be liable to overstep the limits of the law, until Parliament had secured freedom of speech for its members, and the right to call his ministers to account.

After three years' imprisonment, his health giving way, Eliot petitioned the king for permission to go into the country for a time; but refusing to crave pardon for his bold speeches in Parliament, his request was not granted. "Sir," he said, in writing to the king, "I am heartily sorry that I have displeased your Majesty, and having so said, do humbly beseech you once again to set me at liberty." Charles would not listen to a petition drawn up in such curt style. In a few weeks the patriot was dead, having in truth died for his country. His two fellow-patriots, Valentine and Strode, remained in prison until the meeting of Parliament eight years afterwards (1640).

This is the celebrated *Long Parliament*, which continued to sit for thirteen years and waged war with the king. It began the struggle by calling to account the king's chief ministers, Earl Strafford and Archbishop Laud, both of whom they sent to the Tower, there to await their trial.

Strafford had not long to wait. A bill declaring him guilty passed both Houses and was brought to the king for his assent. Charles hesitated for a long time ; for he had pledged his royal word that " not a hair of his head should be touched." The earl wrote to the king, tendering himself as a peace-offering. " Sir, my consent shall sooner acquit you herein to God than all the world can do besides. To a willing man there is no injury done."

Charles at last yielded and signed the warrant of his execution. " I thank God," said the brave earl, on his way to the block, " I am not afraid to die." To the executioner, who drew out a handkerchief to cover his eyes, he said, " Thou shalt not bind my eyes, for I will see it done." As the axe fell the silence of the crowd was broken by a universal shout of joy. Men rode through the country waving their hats, and crying in every town they came to, " His head is off ! his head is off ! "

To Archbishop Laud was meted out the same punishment a year or two later. He met his end with great firmness and composure. " No one," said he, " can be more willing to send me out of life than I am willing to go." No doubt both Laud and Strafford were sustained in their last hour with the consciousness that they had faithfully tried to do their duty as loyal subjects of the king. But they had erred in placing the king above the law of the land, to which all are bound to submit, from the least to the greatest, and were therefore rightly held responsible for the king's illegal acts. Whatever we may think of the measure of justice they received at the hands of Parliament, it thus wrote in letters of blood

one of the great principles of English liberty ; that every minister of the Crown is answerable to Parliament for his actions, although done in the king's name and at his express command.

II. OUR UNCROWNED KING

WAR is a terrible evil in any case, but it presents its most dreadful aspect when it takes the form of Civil War, such as raged in England in the reign of Charles I., as the only effectual means of settling the relative powers of King and Parliament in the government of the country ; for in this Civil War not only was the nation divided into two camps, but families even were rent in twain, brothers sometimes taking opposite sides, and everywhere English blood was shed by English hands. On each side were men of the highest character, each contending for what he judged right and counted most dear. On Charles's side were men who thought that the highest duty of an Englishman is to be true to his sovereign, their patriotism taking the form of personal loyalty to the king. The adherents of the Parliament, on the other hand, reckoned devotion to Law and Liberty the essence of true patriotism, having for its supreme object the welfare of the nation.

Everything at first went in favour of the king. His side contained many gentlemen who were trained to horsemanship and the use of arms ; men of honour, who would not turn their backs in battle whilst it was possible to face the foe. The other side was made up in great measure of men who had never ridden a horse, handled a sword, or fired a gun. Such were the Cavaliers and Roundheads respectively.

The first victory fell to the king at Edgehill, many of the Roundheads having left the field without fighting. Oliver Cromwell, who was present, saw with his keen eye that if his party was to win, they must have better fighting material. He was not a trained soldier himself, but before long he learnt the art of war, and proved himself a born warrior.

Cromwell at once set to work to raise a regiment of cavalry composed of men of the right sort. He knew that on the royalist side were men who would fight to the death from devotion to their king, who were ready to sell their lands, melt their plate, and beggar their families in the service of their sovereign. The soldiers who could beat such men as these must, Cromwell declared, be "men of religion," believing themselves engaged in fighting in a sacred cause. Having raised a thousand men of "a godly sort," he subjected them to iron discipline. "Not a man swears but he pays his twelve pence. If he get drunk he is set in the stocks, or worse."

Cromwell's famous regiment of cavalry was never beaten. Their colonel took pains to instruct them in the best drill then known in Europe. They were mounted on stout horses, and wore buff leather coats, iron helmets and breastplates, and long leather boots. They were armed with heavy straight swords, and well practised in their use. From the time of their first battle they were dubbed "Ironsides" by friend and foe alike.

They gave proof of their mettle, first, at the battle of Marston Moor (1644). It was there that Cavalier and Roundhead first met in hard fight. They had previously been trying their 'prentice hands. They had now learnt their art, and about twenty-four thousand men on either

side were going to show which had learnt it best. Cromwell with his Ironsides were on the left wing, with Prince Rupert's cavalry on the royal right. For some hours the two armies faced each other, on either side of a ditch running across the Moor, whilst the artillery exchanged cannon shots. Whilst waiting the Ironsides, posted on a little eminence among standing corn, passed away the anxious hours in psalm-singing, greatly to the amusement of Rupert's rollicking troops, who were soon to learn that these grim-looking men could ride and fight as well as sing.

Before the first onset of the fiery Rupert's brave men the Ironsides yielded, and their line became bent and broken, but so well disciplined were they that they reformed, renewed the attack, and drove the enemy headlong from the field. Meanwhile, the king's left wing proved victorious, and in that part of the field the Parliamentary forces were utterly routed. At the same moment that Prince Rupert with his broken squadrons was flying towards the north, the Parliamentary generals at the other end of the field, believing the day hopelessly lost, were making off towards the south.

At this juncture Cromwell returned from the pursuit of Rupert's troops, at the head of his victorious Ironsides, and in an hour changed disaster into victory. He swooped with the bulk of his own cavalry round the rear of the royalists, and fell upon the king's victorious troopers in the left wing. Taking them in the rear, all disordered as they were in the chase and the plunder, he utterly crushed and dispersed them. Then bringing help to his own side in the centre, he turned the scale there also, and the battle was won, and won because

his men were in such perfect discipline that he was able to recall them from pursuit of the beaten wing, reform their ranks, and launch them against the enemy in the most unexpected quarter.

The Parliamentary army had now found its true leader, and all men knew it. The history of England from the battle of Marston Moor was shaped for the next fourteen years by the strong hand of Cromwell. It was under the influence of Cromwell and his officers that the defeated king was led to execution, and his son, Prince Charles, driven into exile, after the rout of his forces at Worcester. It was owing to his iron will and military genius, and to the fighting powers of his highly-trained soldiers, that England was saved from anarchy. The times that followed the beheading of the king called for a strong man to heal the disorders of the land, and that strong man was Oliver Cromwell, "our uncrowned king."

Whatever may be thought of Cromwell's rule at home, it is acknowledged by all that our country was never more respected abroad than when he kept watch and ward for England. One example may be given of his foreign policy. Cromwell demanded of the King of Spain, through the Spanish ambassador, the right to trade with the West Indies, and exemption of Englishmen in Spain from "the tender mercies" of the Inquisition. To this demand the Spanish ambassador replied, "My master has but two eyes, and you have asked him to put out both at once." Cromwell at once sent an expedition to the West Indies to enforce compliance with his demand, and it succeeded in capturing the rich sugar island of Jamaica.

People will always differ in opinion as to the character of Cromwell and the purity of his motives, but most Englishmen will agree that among the great men by whom this kingdom has been made great we must certainly reckon Oliver Cromwell.

III. THE CROWN RESTORED, FORFEITED, AND TRANSFERRED

CHARLES II. was restored to the throne, 29th May, 1660. Englishmen were so glad to see him on his father's throne that they neglected to lay down the limits of his authority. The lessons, however, of his father's reign were not lost upon him. He came back, as he said, with a fixed determination "never to set out on his travels again"; but he was secretly resolved to get as much power as possible "without staking either his head or his crown." He determined therefore to keep himself in the background, and to throw all responsibility upon his ministers. And the House of Commons took care to bring that responsibility home to them. Before six years of the reign had passed, the Earl of Clarendon, the king's chief minister, fled abroad to save his head.

As far as he safely could do so, Charles attempted to rule according to his own will. Being at heart a Romanist in religion, he was desirous of exempting the Catholics from the pains and penalties imposed on them by law. Or, it may be, he was in advance of his time, and sincerely desired all men to enjoy the free exercise of their religion. At any rate, he issued, in 1672, a *Declaration of Indulgence*, ordering that all laws

bearing hard upon "Nonconformists of whatever sort" should be suspended.

Nothing, we all feel nowadays, could have been more just and reasonable than such a measure, but though it was a right thing to be done, it was not done in the right way. All saw that if the king could dispense with bad laws he could dispense with good ones. All agreed that the king had exceeded his authority and placed himself above the law. All the enemies of religious freedom and all the friends of civil freedom found themselves on the same side. Charles bowed to the storm which he had raised, cancelled the Declaration, tearing off the seals with his own hands. But when his brother, James II., came to the throne, he not only issued a similar Declaration of Indulgence, but ordered every clergyman publicly to read the same, during Divine Service, on two successive Sundays.

And here it is hard to say which behaved most nobly, Churchmen or Dissenters. They seem to have set an example to each other of the purest patriotism. Knowing that James's real object was to favour the Catholics, and that to accept his indulgence was to admit that the king's will was above law, the Dissenters arrayed themselves side by side with the members of the Church in defence of the fundamental laws of the realm. They exhorted the clergy, placed as they were in the van of this great fight, to play the man and stand up for the liberties of Englishmen and for the truths of the Gospel.

The clergy almost with one consent refused to read the Declaration. In London it was read only in four churches, and in them to empty benches. In all parts of the country the same spirit was shown. The bishops

took the lead in this opposition to the king. A few days before the appointed Sunday for reading the Declaration, Archbishop Sancroft called the other bishops together. They drew up a petition to the king, and a deputation waited on His Majesty to present it. "It is a standard of rebellion," said James on reading it.

The seven bishops who had signed the petition were sent to the Tower. All down the river, from Whitehall to London Bridge, the royal barge conveying them passed between lines of wherries from which arose a shout of "God bless your lordships." Even the very sentinels at the Traitors' Gate reverently asked for a blessing from the martyrs as they entered the Tower. They were soon brought to trial on a charge of libel. The jury had been packed and the judges were supposed to be tools of the Crown, but judges and jury were alike overawed by the intense strength of the public feeling, and influenced no doubt with the consciousness that the law was on the side of the prisoners.

The jury were locked up all night to consider their verdict. One proved obstinate until the morning. This poor man, who was the king's brewer, was in a dilemma. "Whatever I do," he said, "I am sure to be half ruined. If I say 'Not guilty,' I shall brew no more for the king; and if I say 'Guilty,' I shall brew no more for anybody else." When the court assembled at nine o'clock, the foreman announced the verdict—"Not Guilty." Then arose a mighty cheer within the court, which, like a wave gathering force as it passes on, travelled in an incredibly short time from one end of London to the other. Meanwhile horsemen spurred along every road to carry over the country the good news to a delighted

people. Thousands that day sobbed aloud for joy. Even the soldiers, whom the king had assembled at Hounslow to keep London in check, raised a shout of joy on hearing the news of the acquittal.

If "coming events cast their shadows before," James might have known by the shadows that fell around him, when the nation testified its joy at the bishops' acquittal, that a day of reckoning was at hand for his tyrannical government. The man who was destined to call him to account was his nephew and son-in-law, the Prince of Orange. This prince was regarded as champion of the Protestants of Europe, and to him all English Protestants now turned their eyes for deliverance from the king who had trampled on their laws, and threatened to subvert their religion.

The prince accepted the invitation to come to their aid, and set sail from Holland with a force of 13,000 soldiers, on board a fleet of 600 transports, escorted by fifty war-ships. The flag at the mast-head of William's ship bore the legend, "The Protestant Religion and the Liberties of England." William landed at Brixham, in Devonshire, November 5th, 1688. James advanced to meet him with his army, but on finding himself deserted by Lord Churchill, afterwards the famous Duke of Marlborough, and other men of distinction, he returned to London, only to find that the Princess Anne, his own daughter, had secretly withdrawn from the city. "God help me!" said he; "my own children have forsaken me." Having sent away his wife and infant son to France, James lost no time in following them.

The throne was now declared vacant, and offered to William and Mary jointly. The offer was coupled with

a *Declaration of Right*, which laid down distinctly the fundamental laws of England. It asserted that, without the consent of Parliament, no new law could be made, or old one altered or suspended, no tax imposed, no soldiery kept up ; that no man could be kept in prison without trial, and that no minister could plead the royal command as an excuse for doing any wrong to the lowest in the land.

Thus was happily completed the long fight for law and liberty. The struggle between king and people was now at an end. James I. held the maxim "A Deo rex, a rege lex," meaning that the king rules by the will of God, and the law proceeds from the will of the king. The rebellion in the reign of Charles I. and the revolution in that of James II., with the king's execution in one case and his exile in the other, served as the nation's answer to this high claim. It was now finally decided that the nation has a right to settle its own form of government, to regulate the succession to the throne, and to limit or enlarge the powers of the sovereign as may be judged best in the interests of the kingdom. At the same time Englishmen have learnt from this stormy period of our history to value the blessings of a well-ordered liberty, under a stable form of government, and to shun all sudden and violent changes in our Constitution, such as took place on the execution of Charles I., when England was transformed from a monarchy to a republican state under the name of the *Commonwealth*.

CHAPTER V

Growth of England's Sea Power

OUR empire extends over every quarter of the globe. Its widely scattered parts are connected by the sea. By command of the sea that empire has been founded, and only by command of the sea can its safety be ensured, and the cohesion of its parts secured. All Englishmen are agreed that upon the size and strength of the British navy depend the continued existence of the British Empire and the immunity of its shores from invasion. And the more clearly we discern the bearing of sea power upon the destiny of nations, and the momentous part the possession of that power has played in their history, the more determined shall we be to maintain the sovereignty of the seas.

That sovereignty had its rise in the destruction of the Spanish Armada, but it was not fully assured until the end of the 17th century, in the course of which victory on the seas oscillated between the English and the Dutch. Holland was at last outrun in the race because of her small territory and population, and still more because she had to defend her borders from attack by land, whilst England, favoured by her insular position, was able to concentrate her efforts on the sea.

We are not so much surprised at England's predominance on the sea as upon the splendid rivalry of the Dutch. The high position occupied by Holland in the 17th century shows the great influence of sea power, and the way in which she acquired that power well

illustrates the chief conditions on which predominance at sea is rendered possible.

I. OUR DUTCH RIVALS AT SEA.

JAMES I., on becoming King of England, made peace with Spain, and under his timid policy our nation sank to a low position among the Powers of Europe. Holland at once stepped forward and took our place as the rival of Spain, and in the course of a few years made herself the first maritime state in the world. The first half of the 17th century was, in fact, the golden age of Holland, as it was the leaden age of England. But with the establishment of the Commonwealth a wonderful change passed over the English Government, and a mighty struggle took place with the Dutch for maritime supremacy.

The extraordinary sea power of Holland in the 17th century was based on her commerce. It was her merchant fleet that served as a school for her sailors, and supplied ships in time of war to supplement her navy; and the forward position of her merchant fleet was the outcome of her fisheries. When the discovery of America and of a new route to India diverted the course of trade, and made the Atlantic a great commercial highway, Holland was able to take immediate advantage of the change; for she had large fishing-fleets, a large sea-faring population, and numerous ship-builders. Thus the fortunes of the Dutch on the sea grew out of the humble occupation of fishing.

The English had long neglected the rich harvests of the sea on their eastern coasts. The fisherman's life, perhaps, was better suited to the Dutchman's rough

style of living. On board one of his boats were usually the master with his wife and children, and about six others, men and women. Children on board were able to earn their own bread from the age of four or five. The life was rude at the best, but the people learned to live on stormy seas, to subsist on coarse fare, to feel at home on mud-banks, and to face daily perils with cool courage. The Dutch family, huddled in a corner of the boat, cost little to maintain. More than once our ancestors had tried to establish rival fisheries, but never with a chance of success under such competition, for the English fisherman had not the heart to allow his wife and children to share in his hard toils and constant dangers. When the bleak winds blew, he preferred to think of them as snug at home.

The Dutch, in consequence of their great fishing industry, were able to take the lead, when the course of trade changed with the discovery of new routes, in the carrying trade of the world. Aided by their geographical position, they became the great ocean carriers of the day—"the waggoners of all seas." And of late they had profited by our home troubles. During our Civil War, Dutch ships were largely employed in carrying goods to and from our English ports; but no sooner was King Charles executed than steps were taken to revive English shipping.

In the early days of the Commonwealth, a "Navigation Act" was passed, which struck a fatal blow at the carrying trade from which the Dutch drew much of their wealth, and on which was built their maritime supremacy. By this Act it was ordered that no goods should be imported into England except in English

vessels, or in those belonging to the country in which the goods were produced. It was not long before the irritation caused by this law led the Dutch to the brink of war. There was also another thing which aggravated this hostile feeling in Holland. English ships of war had for centuries claimed the right of a salute from all foreign ships passing through the English Channel, as an acknowledgment of their supremacy in the "narrow seas"; and now, under the rule of Cromwell, the captains of our war-ships were ordered to enforce this claim.

It was not long before the unfriendliness between England and Holland, which grew out of these causes, led to an accidental encounter between the English and Dutch admirals, Robert Blake and Van Tromp. The latter was sailing up the Channel with forty ships, when the English admiral insisted on his saluting the English flag. Blake sent one or two shots in front of the Dutch flag-ship to emphasize his demand, to which Van Tromp replied with a broadside. Curling his black whiskers round his fingers, as he always did in anger, Blake ordered his gunners to return the fire. Soon the action became general, lasting till nightfall, when the Dutch sheered off with the loss of two ships.

Both sides now prepared for war in earnest. The English were the first afloat. Blake, whilst scouring the North Sea in search of the enemy, fell in with the Dutch herring fleet, of six hundred boats, laden with fish, under an escort of twelve men-of-war. After a gallant fight three of the twelve were sunk, and the other nine taken. The clemency of the English admiral led him to spare the herring-boats, since they belonged, as he

said, to poor families, and formed their only means of a livelihood. Very soon Van Tromp was on the heels of our admiral with a magnificent fleet, but a storm so shattered his ships that he had to return and refit.

On the approach of winter the English fleet broke up for their winter quarters. At that time the thought of a winter campaign never entered men's minds. Van Tromp, however, was daring enough to face the winter storms and take the risks. As soon as the English squadrons were dispersed he suddenly appeared off the Downs, and threatened Blake's division with destruction. The English admiral had but half as many ships as his adversary, but he at once accepted the challenge, for he thought it was better for the prestige of England to be beaten by a superior force than to seek safety in flight. The unequal combat went on doggedly till dusk, when the English fleet withdrew shattered into the Thames. Van Tromp now sailed the Channel with a broom at the mast-head of his ship, as a sign that he had "swept the English from the Channel." But the real battle which should decide the question of superiority at sea had yet to be fought between the two rivals.

II. OUR GREAT "GENERAL-AT-SEA"

IT was the custom of the times of which we are speaking for generals to take command at sea, the management of the ships being left in the hands of the master-seaman. Robert Blake first gained distinction as a soldier in the Civil War before he was appointed to the command of an English fleet. He served his apprenticeship as a "general-at-sea," in fighting the

royalist ships which declared for Prince Charles, and fought under Prince Rupert.

In character and devotion to duty, in his splendid daring and magnetic influence over his men, as well as in the magnitude of his services to his country, Blake deserves to rank with Nelson. In face of any event he asked himself but one question—Is this for the honour and interest of England? The answer to that question was his simple guide. He had no ends of his own to serve. He was beloved by his sailors on account of his constant care and thought for their welfare. Every wounded or suffering sailor found in him a friend. Blake set himself with rare devotion to the removal of all abuses from the navy, and to the introduction of numberless reforms. He knew that success in battle depends greatly upon previous attention to details.

Van Tromp's triumph, with the broom at his mast-head, was of short duration. In less than three months the English were again on the sea with a powerful fleet. All felt that the coming battle was one of extraordinary interest, both nations having now sent forth their finest fleets under the command of their most renowned admirals. Van Tromp was escorting a large fleet of merchantmen, when, off Portland, he found the English admiral awaiting him. It was the first time Blake and Tromp had met on equal terms. Every sailor in the two fleets felt that the day was come to test their relative prowess, and they burned to begin the struggle. The battle that followed seems not to have been fought on any definite plan. Each captain was expected to bring his ship close alongside an enemy's

ship and to pound away. It is impossible to describe the varied turns of fortune. One moment an English crew would be seen boarding a Dutch man-of-war, the next moment the boarders would be driven back, and their own vessel assailed in turn. Here a ship might be seen wrapt in flames, and there one going down with all its men on deck, their cries unheard, and their terrors unheeded by friend or foe.

When night fell Blake remained master of the scene of action. The Dutch had lost eight ships, the English only one, the *Sampson*. The captain and nearly all the crew having been slain, Blake took out of her the remaining officers and men, and let her drift away. Blake himself was wounded in the thigh. As soon as night came his first care was to relieve the agonies of the wounded by sending them to hospitals on shore. All left on board were busy that night in repairing sails, masts, and cordage.

The dreadful battle was renewed the next day with similar results. At night-fall several Dutch captains sent word to their admiral that they could hold out no longer and withdrew. But the brave old Tromp on the morning of the third day still stubbornly stood to his guns. Soon, however, he was in full retreat. An exciting chase then followed, which ended in the gain to the English of eleven men-of-war and about fifty of the merchantmen under escort.

Two other desperate fights took place the same year, and both ended gloriously for England. On the last day of the last battle the veteran admiral of Holland was pierced to the heart with a musket-ball. This war dealt a severe blow on the carrying-trade of the Dutch,

and brought their country to the verge of ruin. "The Zuyder Zee," it is said, "became a forest of masts; the country was full of beggars; grass grew in the streets, and in Amsterdam fifteen hundred houses were untenanted." Peace with England alone saved them. This peace left England, for the time at least, mistress of the seas.

Our great admiral next read the pirates of Algiers a severe lesson, and made the navy of England for the first time feared in the Mediterranean, thus securing to English merchantmen a comparatively safe way through its waters. Hitherto, the Mediterranean trade had been left to the Dutch, but from this time the English began to take their share, and to oust their rivals from the foremost place, as "carriers of the sea." The greater the protection afforded our merchant shipping by the prowess and prestige of our ships of war, the more flourishing became our commerce, and the readier were foreign merchants to entrust their goods to English vessels.

The whole life and career of Admiral Blake are well worthy of our study and admiration, but we must hasten on to his last great feat of arms, which made "all the world wonder." The scene of this last exploit of his was Santa Cruz, in the Isle of Teneriffe. We were at war with Spain at the time, and her silver fleet had taken refuge there under the guns of the forts. Santa Cruz was then one of the strongest naval stations in the world. The harbour, shaped like a horse-shoe, was defended at the entrance by a regular castle, mounted with the heaviest ordnance and well garrisoned. Along the inner line of the Bay were seven powerful forts,

connected with each other by a line of earthworks, manned with gunners and musketeers. Armed vessels were moored in a semi-circle round the inner line, and at the narrow entrance of the Bay were stationed the royal galleons that had escorted the silver fleet across the Atlantic. With his castle, his batteries and earthworks, his powerful garrison, and his line of warships, the Spanish governor considered, not unreasonably, that his position was impregnable.

Our great sea-general knew well the kind of place he was about to assail, but judged that his ships were equal to the task. At any rate it was resolved to make the daring attempt, a solemn prayer being first of all offered on each ship to the Disposer of events. At seven in the morning the anchors were weighed, a favourable wind then blowing. In an incredibly short space of time the outer defences were passed, and the ships arranged to attack forts and galleons with a furious cannonade. For some hours the old peak of Teneriffe witnessed a scene which might seem like an imitation of his own mighty outbursts. One by one the batteries ceased to answer, and at noon all efforts were concentrated on the men-of-war. By two o'clock the battle was clearly won. Two of the Spanish ships had gone down, and every other Spanish vessel in the harbour was in flames. Not a single ship escaped destruction.

The most extraordinary thing now happened to complete the English triumph. Just at the right moment the wind veered round and enabled the whole squadron to leave the Bay without the loss of a single ship, though many of course were too battered for further service.

This surely is one of the greatest exploits in the records of the British navy, and exemplifies that spirit of noble daring which, coupled with the sense of duty and devotion to the public service, has made the name of England great, and given her command of the seas. Admiral Blake had now accomplished his life's work. His death occurred on his homeward voyage within sight of his native shores (1656).

The war-ships of England now rode triumphant on the seas. But their triumph did not long remain unchallenged. Throughout the greater part of the reign of Charles II. the Dutch and English strove constantly for the mastery. A series of notable sea-fights ended, in 1673, in a drawn battle off the Texel, an island at the entrance of the Zuyder Zee.

After this battle the necessity of defending their country from the French disposed the Dutch to make a lasting peace with England. In the treaty of peace they recognised the supremacy of the English flag from Cape Finisterre to Norway, paid a war indemnity, and ceded the island of St. Helena, of some value as a place of call to ships sailing to and from the East Indies. The Dutch from this time ceased to struggle with the English for the sovereignty of the seas.

CHAPTER VI

England Growing in Wealth and Power

WE here take up the story of our country's growth and development from the accession to the English throne of William of Orange (1689), who is entitled, though a Dutchman, to a place among the great builders of our empire, because he enabled our ancestors to place on firm foundations our constitutional monarchy, under which England has won her right to the title of "the mother of free nations." But only the *foundations* of liberty were laid by the help of his strong hand. Much remained to be done, between his time and ours, in building on that foundation, in making the idea of personal liberty an undoubted reality. It is one thing to write Liberty in large letters on every public building and to boast of it on all great public occasions, and quite another thing to embody that idea in all the details of private life, and to bring it home to the doors of the humblest citizens of the kingdom.

We shall see that in the half-century which followed the transfer of the crown to William III., our country made great progress. As the fruits of victory in war with France and Spain, military posts of great strength, and territories of some value in North America, were

left in British hands by the Treaty of Utrecht (1713). The position attained by England at that time was high and commanding among the nations abroad, whilst the settlement of the Constitution cleared the way for peaceful progress and prosperity at home.

But we shall have to deplore the fact that the progress made was chiefly in material things, in such things as relate to the outward comforts and conveniences of life. We shall have occasion to draw attention to certain dark blots, which had long disfigured the pages of our history, and whose removal was essential to the moral progress of our nation. Unless these blots had been obliterated we might to-day have boasted of the bigness of our empire, and of its wealth and power, but we could never have dared to speak of its greatness.

There was, however, one great work accomplished, in the period covered by this chapter, on which we can dwell with peculiar pleasure, a work second to none in importance in the building up of our great empire, and that was the union of the whole island of Great Britain under one Government, by which our island-kingdom henceforth was moved with one heart and one soul in all her dealings with foreign nations.

I. FIGHTING THE FRENCH

AMONG the great men who have helped to make England great, we must reckon, as we have said, William of Orange, our William III. To him we owe a double debt of gratitude, for he defended our liberties at home against James of England, and our interests abroad against Louis XIV. of France. His chief pleasure in

accepting the crown of England arose from his strong desire to unite the forces of England and Holland against the ambitious ruler of France. We see the kind of man he was in his reply to the Parliament that proposed to make his wife, Mary, Queen of England and himself Regent of the kingdom.

“ My lords and gentlemen,” he said, “ no man can esteem a woman more than I do the princess, but I am so made that I cannot think of holding anything by my wife’s apron-strings ; nor can I think it reasonable to have any share in the government unless it be put in my own person, and that for the term of my life. If you think fit to settle it otherwise I will not oppose you, but will go back to Holland and meddle no more in your affairs.” You see, he had come to be king, and king he would be or nothing. And king, accordingly, he became.

It was on the banks of a little river in Ireland, called the Boyne, that William first contended with Louis after becoming King of England ; for it was there that he met the discrowned king, James II., who had landed at Kinsale, convoyed by fifteen French men-of-war, and supported by 2,500 French troops. Whilst James watched the battle from a safe eminence, William led his troops in person. William, indeed, was never so jubilant as when on his war-horse.

On the day before the battle, whilst inspecting his troops, a shot grazed his shoulder and made him reel in his saddle. But on the fateful day itself (1st July, 1690) he escaped unhurt, though often in the thick of the fight. Seeing the battle going against him, James galloped off to Dublin and embarked for France. The

brave Irish who had fought for him that day were much disgusted, and said to the victors after the battle: "Change leaders and we will fight it all over again."

The battle of the Boyne is a memorable one, for it decided whether England should be governed by a feeble despot like James, under the patronage of France, or by a Constitutional monarch like William, who was willing to rule according to law, to curb the ambition of France, and to maintain the high position of England. The day before the victory of the Boyne, the English were defeated by a French fleet, under Admiral Tourville, off Beachy Head. But the day of retribution was not far distant.

Two years later another naval engagement was fought which put an end to all anxiety as to the power of France at sea. James II., who had fled to France after his defeat in Ireland, resolved to make one more effort, with the help of the French king, to recover his throne. French troops were assembled, and Admiral Tourville was sent with a fleet to protect their passage. It was feared that Admiral Russell, who commanded the English fleet, would not do his duty, for it was known that his sympathies were with the deposed king. But to James's friends he said, "Do not think I will let the French triumph over us in our own seas. If I meet them, I fight them, ay, though his Majesty himself should be on board."

He was as good as his word. After a determined fight of five hours, the French were obliged to make for the shelter of their ports. The majority got safe to St. Malo; but fifteen ships being unable to enter before the tide had turned, took refuge with Tourville in the

bays of Cherbourg and La Hogue. Their pursuers were soon upon them, and a bold attack of the English boats burnt ship after ship, under the eyes of the French army, waiting to cross the Channel for the invasion of England—in sight too of James II., who is said to have rejoiced on beholding the daring and prowess of his “brave English tars,” even though their victory was the death-blow of his hopes of ever regaining the throne. La Hogue was the last general action fought by the French fleet for a long period, and her dream of supremacy at sea was seen to be hopeless.

The work which William began in Ireland he continued on the Continent. Much English blood was shed there, but it was not shed in vain. It was necessary, in the interests of England, to keep the French from overflowing the limits of their own land. Had they succeeded in adding the Netherlands to France and the Dutch navy to their own, our own country would probably have lost her lead upon the sea, and her future greatness in America and India; for the time was fast approaching when the question of supremacy in those distant lands would have to be fought out by the two nations that face each other on the two sides of the English Channel. Louis, notwithstanding his many victories, was glad to make peace by the Treaty of Ryswick (1697) which left him with the city of Strasburg as his only acquisition. All honour to William of Orange.

II. MARLBOROUGH'S VICTORIES

WHEN William died, in 1702, he was on the eve of another war with Louis to prevent the union of the



MARLBOROUGH'S LAST CAVALRY CHARGE AT THE BATTLE OF BLENHEIM.

crowns of France and Spain. It is known as the *War of the Spanish Succession*, and arose from the fact that the King of Spain had left the crown to a French prince. Spain at that time had vast possessions in the New World, whilst in Europe she was mistress of what is now called Belgium and a large part of Italy. Had France and Spain been united, the might of England would have been completely overshadowed, and her commerce at their mercy. Accordingly, Parliament, in the first year of Queen Anne, resolved to join Holland and Austria in their determination to keep France and Spain apart.

Fortunately the man to carry out the will of Parliament was at hand, and before long every one knew it. This man was Churchill, afterwards Duke of Marlborough, who succeeded William of Orange as the commander-in-chief of the allied armies of Holland and England. In the war with the French Marlborough gained a surprising series of victories, but his greatest was that of Blenheim, a little village on the Danube, in Bavaria. Here he was joined by Prince Eugene with an army of Austrians and Germans. The French and their Bavarian allies were under the command of Marshal Tallard. A little stream, named the Nebel, divided the hostile armies.

On account of the uneven nature of the ground Prince Eugene on the right wing took some time to get his troops into order. Marlborough in the meanwhile ordered prayers to be read at the head of each regiment. At midday an aide-de-camp galloped up with the message that the prince was ready. "Now, gentlemen, to your posts," said Marlborough cheerfully to

the officers grouped around him. There was no delay. Two attacks made by the English on the village of Blenheim were foiled by the French, who had barricaded the streets and loop-holed the houses. Our men were then ordered to keep up firing, but not again to advance until a diversion had been made. Prince Eugene, meanwhile, was barely holding his own on the right.

The French centre proved to be the most vulnerable part of their line. Marshal Tallard seems to have trusted to the protection of a swamp which here separated the two armies. Across this swamp Marlborough led his cavalry, the passage having been made practicable by laying down faggots of wood. At the sound of the trumpet, about 8,000 splendidly-mounted horsemen, who had made their way across, moved up the gentle slope, and then gradually quickening their pace fell on the French centre. The assailants recoiled for about sixty paces, and then reforming charged again with redoubled fury. The French cavalry fired their carbines, wheeled, and fled. This decided the day.

The French centre, flung back on the Danube, was forced to surrender ; their right, cooped up in Blenheim, and cut off from retreat, became prisoners of war. Marshal Tallard was caught before he could make his escape. Before nightfall, Marlborough despatched to his wife a pencilled note, written on the back of an old hotel bill, to tell her to "give his duty to the queen, and let her know that her army has won a glorious victory. M. Tallard and two other generals are in my coach, and I am following the rest."

Ten days before the battle of Blenheim the English gained a success, almost by accident, which, little valued

at the time, has proved of vast importance. This was the capture of Gibraltar by Admiral Sir George Rooke (1704). Gibraltar was not then the strong place that the art of fortification has made it since; but it was so strong by nature that the Spaniards thought a small garrison sufficient for its defence. Rooke first seized the narrow strip of land by which the Rock of Gibraltar is connected with the mainland. The next day, while the Spanish sentries were at mass, some English sailors scaled the rock and hoisted the English flag. That flag has waved over the Rock of Gibraltar from that day to this.

The victory of Blenheim set a limit to the supremacy of France on the Continent. The war, however, went on for some years longer, and redounded greatly to the fame of our great general. Marlborough in the course of the whole war suffered no defeat. He never besieged a fortress he did not take, nor fought a battle he did not win. The war ended in 1713 with the Peace of Utrecht.

It was agreed that Philip, the second son of the dauphin, should be acknowledged King of Spain, but that the crowns of France and Spain should be for ever separate. England, it was agreed, should retain Gibraltar and Minorca with Port Mahon, a fortified town with an excellent harbour, which had been captured during the war, and which enabled our fleet to winter and refit in the Mediterranean, instead of having to return to England, as before, for that purpose. Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, and the Hudson Bay territories were also, by the same treaty, added to our growing empire.

III. UNION OF ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND

DURING the war with France a far more important event for England had peacefully taken place at home than all the victories of Marlborough put together. Since the accession of James I. England and Scotland had been ruled by the same sovereign, but in other respects had remained quite independent of each other. As Anne had no children to succeed her there was great danger that on her death the two kingdoms would again be wholly separate. In England an *Act of Settlement* had been passed (1701), which directed that the crown, on the death of Anne, should go to the Electress Sophia, the next heir who was a Protestant. She was the granddaughter of James I. and wife of the Elector of Hanover. The Scotch Parliament, with the view of asserting their national independence, enacted, in 1704, that the queen's successor in Scotland should be different from the one in England.

Such an arrangement, if allowed to stand, would have been certain to lead to war between the two nations, with the most disastrous consequences to both of them. Whereas, the union of the two countries under the same Crown and Parliament, promised a vast increase of power to England and of prosperity to Scotland. Commissioners were accordingly appointed, on each side, to draw up terms of union. The Act of Union, as finally passed, in 1707, provided that the two kingdoms should be united into one under the name of Great Britain, and that the succession to the crown should be ruled by the English Act of Settlement. The Scotch Presbyterian Church was to remain

as the National Church, and the old Scotch laws and law-courts were to be left untouched. Free-trade was established between the two countries, and all commercial privileges in dealing with the colonies were thrown open to both alike, and a uniform system of coinage was adopted. A single Parliament was henceforth to legislate for the united kingdoms, forty-five Scotch members being added to the House of Commons and sixteen representative peers to the House of Lords.

When the Bill was submitted to the English Parliament, the queen told the members that "they had now an opportunity of putting the last hand to a happy union of the two kingdoms, which she hoped would be a lasting blessing to the whole island, a great addition to its wealth and power, and a firm security to the Protestant religion." Her words also, in giving assent to the Bill, after it had been accepted by both Parliaments, are well worthy of record : "I desire and expect from my subjects of both nations that from henceforth they act with all possible respect and kindness to one another, that so it may appear to all the world they have hearts disposed to become one people."

Time has more than fulfilled these hopes. England gained a staunch friend in peace and war, Scotland a share in England's wealth and commerce. The new avenues of wealth thus opened up, the Scots, by their energy, character, and education soon turned to full account. The world has rarely seen such a development of national industry and resources. Glasgow sprang into new life, and has since become one of the greatest centres of trade and industry in the United Kingdom, and in population ranks next to

London. The Lothians became models of agriculture. The disordered Highlands became the abodes of peace and contentment, and the wild clansmen the most loyal of British subjects. And all this without the loss of national spirit and independence. The union has only offered the sons of Scotland a larger field on which to prove their worth and expend their energy. A noble rivalry animates the soldiers of the two countries, and has helped to evoke deeds of chivalry and valour which have raised the British army to the pinnacle of fame. The valorous deeds of our Highlanders, in particular, have excited the admiration of Scotch and English alike. So prominent a part have the Scotch played in British affairs since the union, and so intimate has the union become between the two peoples, that it is often playfully said that the smaller kingdom has absorbed the larger.

IV. PEACE AND PROSPERITY

THE Treaty of Utrecht (1713) left England at the commencement of a long period of peace and prosperity. Louis XIV. had unintentionally done a great thing for England when he placed the Huguenots under his ban, thus driving to our shores some thousands of skilled French artisans. Indeed, it is not too much to say that the manufactures of silk, damask, velvet, cambric and baize, of the finer kinds of cloth and paper, of pendulum clocks, mathematical instruments, felt hats, toys, crystal and plate glass, all owe their origin in England wholly or chiefly to Protestant refugees, who also laid the foundation of scientific gardening, introduced numerous flowers

and vegetables previously unknown here, and improved almost every native industry.

The terms in which the great Dutch minister, De Witt, speaks of England as the rival of Holland, shows the high estimation then formed of our commercial advantages: "When by the cruelties of Alva the cloth-weavers fled to England and set up cloth-weaving there, the English, by degrees, began to vend their manufactures throughout Europe. They became potent at sea and no longer depended on the Netherlands. Also, by the discovery of the inexpressibly rich cod-bank of Newfoundland, the merchants of Bristol grew rich. Moreover, the planting of many English colonies in America has drawn much trade there with the mother-country. So that this mighty island, united with Ireland under one king, seated in the midst of Europe, having a coast full of good havens and bays, will in all respects be formidable to all Europe; for, according to the proverb, a master at sea is a master on land."

Our natural advantages for commerce were not thrown away by the legislature. Credit being the corner-stone of business, steps were taken by Parliament in William's reign to put the national credit on a sound basis. As the nation could not pay all the expenses of the war with France out of the current taxes, it was resolved, in 1693, to raise a loan, offering to pay a fixed annual sum as interest. This was the commencement of the National Debt. Next year the Bank of England was established for the management of the Debt.

Knowing that a good supply of sound coins is as oil to the wheels of trade, the Government next took steps for renewing the coinage. Fresh coins had been issued

in the reign of Elizabeth, but had since become so clipped and worn that it was hard to tell their real value. So great was the uncertainty that quarrelling was incessant. Buyers and sellers after haggling over the price of the goods began to bargain anew over the coin. The mode of minting had become antiquated, coins being still cut out of a sheet of metal and reduced to the proper shape by hammering. Such coins were rude in form, readily imitated, and so easy to clip that they were seldom of the full size. The new coins were made with milled edges, which showed at a glance if they had been clipped.

Happy is the nation, it has been said, without a history, for when all things are going smoothly there is little to tell. Such was the usual state of affairs throughout the ministry of Sir Robert Walpole, who directed the government of England for twenty-one years without a break (1721-1742). His policy is summed up in the word *Peace*. But he had sometimes much ado to maintain it. When, for example, the peace of Europe was broken by disputes concerning Poland, the king, George II., was eager to fight, but Walpole stood firm for peace. At the end of the year he was able to say, "There are fifty thousand men slain this year in Europe, and not a single Englishman." From first to last he bent his whole mind on keeping England out of war, and in helping her to become wealthy. His time of power was a time of great material prosperity, but nothing really great or morally good was attempted. Enthusiasm in the cause of right, self-devotion in the cause of humanity, public spirit and patriotic fervour were all regarded with disfavour.

V. THREE DARK BLOTS

WE have seen our country growing rich and powerful in the half century that followed the transfer of the crown to William III., but it cannot be said that it was advancing at an equal rate in all that constitutes true greatness. There were three dark blots, in particular, which still disfigured the pages of our history. They were all, more or less, due to selfishness and inhumanity, or disregard for the rights and needs of others.

One blot was the callous indifference shown to human suffering and misfortune. In comparing the social condition of that time with ours, one is especially struck with the barbarity that was then rife. If an offender was put into the pillory, it was well if he escaped with life from the shower of brickbats. If he was tied to the cart-tail to be whipped, the crowd implored the hangman to give it the fellow well and make him howl. Gentlemen, it is said, arranged parties of pleasure to Bridewell on court days, for the purpose of seeing the wretched women whipped for some offence. The prisons were literally hells on earth. The more we study the annals of the past, the more shall we rejoice that we live in an age when cruelty is abhorred.

Another blot on our records, and one of old standing, was the unjust system adopted in recruiting for the army and navy. We boast of our English love of fair-play, and justly so, but our forefathers showed little of that spirit in the mode of getting men to fight their battles. At the end of a war both soldiers and sailors were sent adrift, to save the national purse. There being no reserve force to fall back on, when war was seen approaching, "press-gangs" were sent out in all

directions, to lay hands on all suitable persons that fell in their way, and to compel them to join the army or navy.

Often the press-gang went down to some great seaport and boarded all the merchant ships lying at anchor, in order to collect sailors for the royal navy. It was not unusual for the sailors of some merchant vessel, just returning home after a long voyage, to be forced on board a man-of-war waiting in harbour to make up its complement. Voltaire, the celebrated French writer, draws a vivid picture of a boatman on the Thames boasting to him one day of the glories of English freedom, and the next day with irons on his feet, for no crime, begging for money through the gratings of his prison, where he was confined until the ship was ready to sail in which his services were required.

The press-gang could not always secure their victim without a fierce fight, sometimes attended by loss of life. The amount of misery caused by this outrageous system can hardly be overstated. One instance will help us to realize its evils. A sailor had been carried off, leaving behind a young wife and two infant children. The breadwinner being gone, the poor woman was reduced to great distress, and at last in despair she stole a piece of coarse linen from a draper's shop. Her case was clearly stated in court, but she was sentenced to be hanged for theft, and the sentence was executed. Strange that in England, "the home of the free," such a system of outrage as that of the press-gang should have still been tolerated.

But the darkest blot of all was the prominent part England took in the slave-trade. As the native Indians

had been almost exterminated in the West India Islands by the Spaniards, who had decoyed many of them from their homes to be worked to death in the mines of Mexico and Peru, the English planters had to look elsewhere for labourers, being themselves incapable of field labour in a tropical climate. Accordingly, negro slaves were purchased on the coasts of Africa, and being found useful as labourers in the plantations of tobacco and rice, this abominable traffic rapidly increased, and slavery became a legal institution in our English colonies of America. The first cargo of slaves was brought into James River by a Dutch trading vessel in 1720; but the shameful trade in negro slaves was commenced much earlier. The first Englishman who took part in it appears to have been John Hawkins, who sailed in three ships, in 1562, to Sierra Leone, and there secured, "partly by the sword, and partly by other means," some three hundred negroes, whom he transported to the West Indies. This venture proved so gainful that he repeated it on a much larger scale; and so far was the practice from being condemned at home, that he was knighted by Queen Elizabeth, and had the audacity to select for his crest a manacled negro.

The sugar plantations of the West Indies seem to have been the first sphere of negro labour. Jamaica, on falling into English hands, became the centre of the traffic, a sort of dépôt for slaves. In the twenty years ending with 1700, it is computed that the English tore from Africa about 300,000 negroes. But it was only in 1713, when the Treaty of Utrecht was signed, that the English slave trade began to attain its full dimensions.

By that treaty; we blush to own, the English secured the sole right to supply the Spanish colonies with slaves, and bound themselves to import not less than 4,800 slaves a year. So great indeed did this infamous trade become, that, between 1750 and 1760, no less than 70,000 negroes were imported into Jamaica alone, without mentioning those imported elsewhere.

With this terrible fact before us, we must feel that however much the British nation had advanced in wealth and power during the first half of the 18th century, a moral revolution was needed, or a complete change of thought and feeling, before it could grow in true greatness. And such a revolution, we shall find, was wrought in the second half of that century that, if Englishmen had been the most active in enslaving their fellow-men, they were the first to strike off their shackles.

The time came when the negro slave could not only enjoy freedom in his dreams, as the poet sings, but when freedom became a reality :

Beside the ungathered rice he lay,
 His sickle in his hand ;
His breast was bare, his matted hair
 Was buried in the sand.
Again, in the mist and the shadow of sleep,
 He saw his native land.

Wide through the landscape of his dreams
 The lordly Niger flowed ;
Beneath the palm-trees on the plain
 Once more a king he strode ;
And heard the tinkling caravans
 Descend the mountain road.

CHAPTER VII

Rise of the British Empire

WE have now seen the expansion of England into Great Britain by the union with Scotland, and have marked the progress of the united kingdoms in wealth and prosperity. The commanding position England had gained, even before the Union, among the Powers of Europe was due mainly to her sea power, and that power now became relatively higher than ever. "Before the war of the Spanish Succession," says a distinguished American author, "England was *one* of the sea powers ; after it, she was *the* sea power, without any second. This power also she held alone, unshared by friend, unchecked by foe."

We cannot rightly understand how we gained such brilliant results in the great "Seven Years' War," which will presently occupy our attention, unless we bear in mind the immense superiority of our navy, and the commanding part it played in the operations of the war in connection with our army.

We are now on the threshold of the most thrilling part of our story, which tells how the great question was decided, whether England or France should be the predominant power in the world. As we have already seen England grow into Great Britain, so now we have

to watch the growth of Great Britain into the British Empire. In this chapter we propose to review the progress already made by the two rival nations, England and France, in the colonisation of North America, and to relate the great achievements of our arms by which was opened a way to the possession of a boundless territory in America, and to the exercise of sovereignty in one of the richest countries in Asia.

I. EARLY HISTORY OF CANADA

THE Englishman who first enters Canada by way of Quebec is surprised to find himself among a people speaking French, whilst Quebec itself looks to him like a quaint old Norman town. The fact is, the majority of the inhabitants are of French descent, although at the present day as loyal to the British flag as any in the whole Dominion. The explanation of this French air about the place is, of course, the fact that Canada was at first a French colony. The country was first explored by Cartier, a Frenchman, in 1535.

Following the course of the river St. Lawrence, he came to anchor off Orleans Island, three or four miles from Quebec. Here he was visited by the great Indian chief Donnacona, presents were exchanged, and very soon the strangers and the natives were on friendly terms. "They came flocking around us," says Cartier, "with fur skins, which they gladly bartered for knives and other hardware, for combs, glass beads, and other trinkets. They gave us whatsoever they had, not keeping anything, so that they were constrained to go away naked."

Finding that the Indians had a much larger settlement farther up the St. Lawrence, Cartier resolved to make his way thither. Leaving his two larger vessels at Orleans Island, he continued his voyage in the pinnace, sailing between thick woods, glorious in the bright tints of autumn, and at length reached the goal of his journey, the Indian town of Hochelaga. Where now are seen the quays and warehouses of Montreal, a thousand Indians thronged the shore, wild with delight, crowding about the mysterious strangers, and seeking to propitiate them with gifts of fish and maize. The French were invited inside their palisaded town, within which were large oblong dwellings, framed of sapling poles, and covered with sheets of bark. They next climbed to the top of the neighbouring mountain, which Cartier called *Mont Royal*—hence Montreal, the busy city which now holds the site of the vanished Hochelaga. “East, west, and south, the mantling forest was seen over all, and the broad blue ribbon of the great river glistened amid a realm of verdure.”

Cartier on returning to France, the next spring, took with him Donnacona and other Indians whom he had enticed on board. The news of the discovery awakened great interest, but France at the time was too much occupied at home to send a colony abroad. The first settlement was not effected till 1608, a year after our English colonists had taken a permanent footing in Virginia.

In the meantime, however, the new discovery yielded wealth to the merchant adventurers of France, who found in the Canadian fur-trade a lucrative business. The first traders had no need to proceed further than

the port of Tadoussac, at the mouth of the Saguenay. Here the Indians brought the skins of the moose, caribou, and bear ; fur of the beaver, marten, otter, and fox. These natives acted as intermediate traders between the French and the shivering bands who roamed the weary stretch of stunted forest between the head-waters of the Saguenay and Hudson Bay. In their canoes of birch, light as egg-shells, they threaded the devious tracks of countless streams—those by-ways of the forest —gathering the Indian harvest of furs in exchange for “fire-water,” knives, hatches, and other articles in daily demand.

At length, in 1608, appeared on the St. Lawrence a ship, not bound for Tadoussac to trade in furs, but having on board a body of emigrants from France, under the direction of an enthusiastic explorer, named Champlain, who had already sailed up the St. Lawrence as far as the rapids above Montreal, and who was now eager to plant the Catholic Faith and the power of France in this realm of barbarism and heathen superstition. Passing the Island of Orleans, he moored his vessel at the foot of a rock rising 333 feet sheer above the river. Here a small stream, the St. Charles, enters the St Lawrence, and in the angle between them rises a promontory, on two sides a natural fortress. On this a gang of axe-men were soon set to work, and in a few weeks the new settlement was stored and fortified.

Here Champlain wintered with his small company, and in the spring set out on an exploring expedition. To insure success, he joined a war-party of Indians. This step had an important bearing on the future wars between the English and French in those regions, for

both nations constantly fought with Indians as their allies. The Huron Indians, who occupied the northern bank of the St. Lawrence, and whose warriors Champlain now joined, embroiled him and his colony with the most formidable savages on the Continent. These were the Iroquois, who dwelt in fortified villages within limits now embraced by the State of New York. In the advance to attack the Iroquois, Champlain came across the lake that bears his name. In the battle that was fought near it, Champlain's arquebuse decided the day. The victory was the commencement of a long train of murderous conflicts, descending to generations yet unborn.

Champlain's aim was to induce all the tribes north of the St. Lawrence to live at peace between themselves, and to make common cause against their enemies on the south of that river. But their conversion to the Catholic Faith was that which lay nearest his heart. Jesuit missionaries were soon introduced into this new field, and their devoted labours are the admiration of all men. Champlain thought that with French soldiers to fight the battles of his Indian *protégés*, with French priests to teach them, and French traders to supply their wants, he would soon unite them in the bonds of peace and goodwill.

The scheme of English colonization made no account of the Indian tribes. In the scheme of French colonization they took a leading place. And to such an extent did religious interests dominate in France at this time, that in the Charter granted to a company for colonizing Canada (1627), it was decreed that every settler must be a Frenchman and a Catholic. The Huguenots, the only

emigrating class in France, were forbidden to touch her shores. Had the thousands of French Protestants which found a refuge in England been sent across the Atlantic, it is probable that Canada, which began as a French colony, would have so remained to the present day.

II. CANADA AS A FRENCH COLONY

THE history of Canada for the first fifty years is the history of the Jesuit missions to the Indians. A new epoch began in 1665, when Louis XIV. took the colony in charge. At that time the whole French population did not exceed that of a large French village. It was in constant danger from the attacks of the Iroquois Indians, and always in the depth of poverty. The young king came to the rescue of the distressed colony, being resolved that a new France should be added to the old. Soldiers, settlers, horses, sheep, cattle were all sent out in abundance, and the well-being of the colony became the object of the king's paternal care. Before winter set in about two thousand persons had landed at Quebec at the royal charge. "Thus a sunbeam from the court fell for a moment on the rock of Quebec." Indeed the light of the king's favour continued to fall on the colony for some years, but it failed to bring prosperity.

The colony, however, was freed by the regiment of soldiers, which Louis sent to it, from the attacks of the Indians, and thus was removed the great impediment to peaceful industry. But nothing prospered. The colonists were treated as children and kept in leading-

strings. Their trade was hampered by a number of restrictions. Even the price to be paid for their goods from France and their home-grown wheat was settled by the Government. The merchant who sold, and the purchaser who bought, above the legal tariff were alike condemned to heavy fines. The king for some time acted the part of a fond father to his Canadian children, and coddled them most unwisely, relieving their wants, and subsidizing every branch of trade and industry with a most liberal hand. But they were expected to render implicit obedience to their rulers. "It is God's will," wrote Louis, "that whoever is born a subject should not reason but obey." Every official of the Government reflected this opinion. "It is of very great consequence," wrote one of them, "that the people should not be left at liberty to speak their minds." They were not free even to go home to France when they pleased; leave had first to be obtained. They were told at what age to marry, and fines were imposed unless they conformed. The colonists, in fact, were in the position of a papoose, or Indian baby, bound up tight from head to foot and carried on its mother's shoulders like a pack.

Whilst under French rule Canada exported a small quantity of timber and a little wheat, but from first to last she traded chiefly in beaver-skins. Out of the beaver-trade arose a huge evil, baneful to the growth and morals of Canada. All the most active and vigorous spirits in the colony took to the woods, and escaped the control of the king's officials, and relapsed into semi-barbarism. We hear sometimes of farms abandoned, wives and children deserted, and the greater part of the young men turned into bushrangers and forest

outlaws. They joined the Indians, trapped the beaver, trafficked for beaver-skins, and adopted the wild unrestrained life of the natives.

This beaver-trade was still more ruinous to the Indians. It broke the heart of the Jesuit missionaries to see all their labours frustrated by the brandy-bottle. Wherever brandy was to be had, thither Indians and their beaver-skins were sure to go. And there was this difficulty—if refused brandy by the French traders, the savages would seek it from the Dutch and English of New York. The fear of English rivalry in their fur trade was a potent factor in Canadian policy. Even the Jesuit, who toiled with marvellous self-devotion for the conversion of the Iroquois, was in no small measure influenced by his jealousy of the “heretic” English of New York and New England. By every means in his power, he sought to alienate his native disciples from England and attach them to France.

Such little progress did New France make, notwithstanding the king’s paternal care, that on his death, in 1715, the whole colony numbered only 25,000 souls, whereas the English colonies in America were at that date ten times as numerous. It is interesting to read the observations of a French Jesuit at this time on the characteristics of the French and English colonists in America: “In New England and the other British colonies there reigns an opulence by which the people seem not to know how to profit, while in New France poverty is hidden under an air of ease that seems natural. The English colonist keeps as much and spends as little as possible; the French colonist enjoys what he has got, and often makes a display of what he



MONTREAL IN WINTER

has not got. The one labours for his heirs ; the other leaves them to get on as they can, like himself."

III. PROGRESS OF ENGLISH COLONIZATION IN AMERICA

SUCH progress was made in building up a new English nation on the other side of the Atlantic, that before the middle of the 18th century no less than thirteen flourishing colonies were established in what is now the United States. We have already sketched out the circumstances attending the planting of our first two colonies—Virginia and New England. Between these two colonies was planted another, called Maryland, in honour of Henrietta Maria, the wife of Charles I.

Maryland was in most respects a highly-favoured colony. It was founded by George Calvert, Lord Baltimore, on liberal lines of policy. Baltimore himself was a convert to Catholicism, and was desirous of providing a home in America for men of his creed, since they were debarred from the free exercise of their religion in England. Neither Virginia nor New England would have answered his purpose ; none but members of the Church of England were tolerated in the former, and none but Puritans of the strictest order in the latter. It was otherwise in Maryland. There all who called themselves Christians were heartily welcomed, and there the right of each individual to worship God according to his conscience was freely recognised.

Of the other colonies now included in the United States, the most interesting was Pennsylvania, established in 1683 by William Penn, who belonged to the

Society of Friends, or Quakers. This colony was intended as an asylum for the persecuted Quakers. So great was the animosity of the Puritans of New England towards this sect, that four Quakers, who had been banished on account of their religion, were put to death on venturing to return. The Pilgrim Fathers, who had crossed the ocean to enjoy religious freedom, were not prepared to tolerate any religious differences in their State. Penn had received a grant of the lands, now forming the State of Pennsylvania, from King Charles, but he desired to reconcile the Indians to his settlement among them. "I desire," he says to them, "to come among you with your love and consent, that we may always live together as neighbours and friends." He then offered to purchase of the Indians his right to occupy the land he required. The Indian chiefs struck a bargain with him, and pledged themselves "to live in love with William Penn and his children as long as sun and moon should endure."

Whilst planting the colonies which have since grown into the United States, we acquired possession of the islands of Barbadoes and Jamaica in the West Indies, and made good our footing in Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, and the Hudson Bay Territory.

It has already been mentioned that a mariner, named Henry Hudson, in the service of James I., discovered the great Bay that bears his name. The country around Hudson Bay was claimed by the English in right of discovery. And, in 1670, King Charles authorised his cousin, the fiery Prince Rupert, who had fought so bravely on the royalist side, to form the Hudson Bay Company and take possession of the lands around that

inland sea. It was soon found that the country was unsuitable for colonization, from its rigorous climate and sterile soil, but that a valuable fur trade could be established. "Forts," or trading-stations, were accordingly set up on the shores of the Bay, to which the Indian trappers for hundreds of miles round brought their annual catch of furs. Encamping outside the fort, the first comers awaited the arrival of the other trappers, indulging to excess meanwhile in the white man's "fire-water."

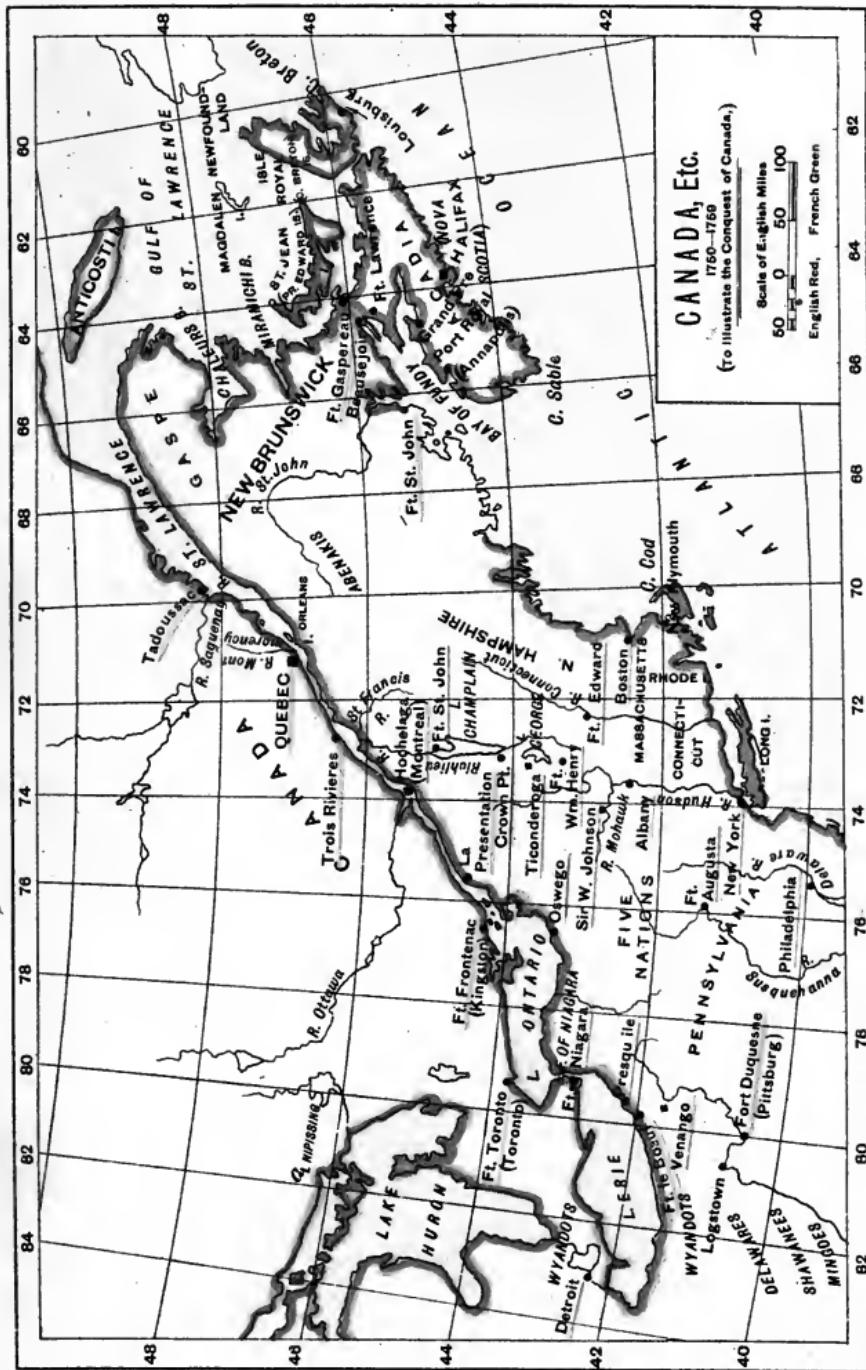
Each year a ship arrived from London, bringing all that the Indian most needed or most fancied, such as guns, knives, spirits, axes, mirrors, blankets, beads, and trinkets. When these had been properly arranged in the great room of the fort, the traffic began. The Indians were first admitted to the outer room with their bundles of furs. Each skin was examined, and the price decided on was paid in the form of little coloured sticks. With these counters each red man passed into the inner room and exchanged them for such articles as he wished to purchase. It may be readily conjectured that great profits were made by this fur trade, in consequence of which a warm competition arose between the English traders of Hudson Bay and the French settlers in Canada. This commercial rivalry was a constant source of deadly enmity between the two races in the backwoods of Canada and "the great lone land" still further north. Parties of rival traders, meeting in the wilderness, remote from civilized homes, attacked each other with gun and hatchet, and fought with the utmost fury. There was no love of country at the bottom of all this fighting, it arose entirely from the love of gain.

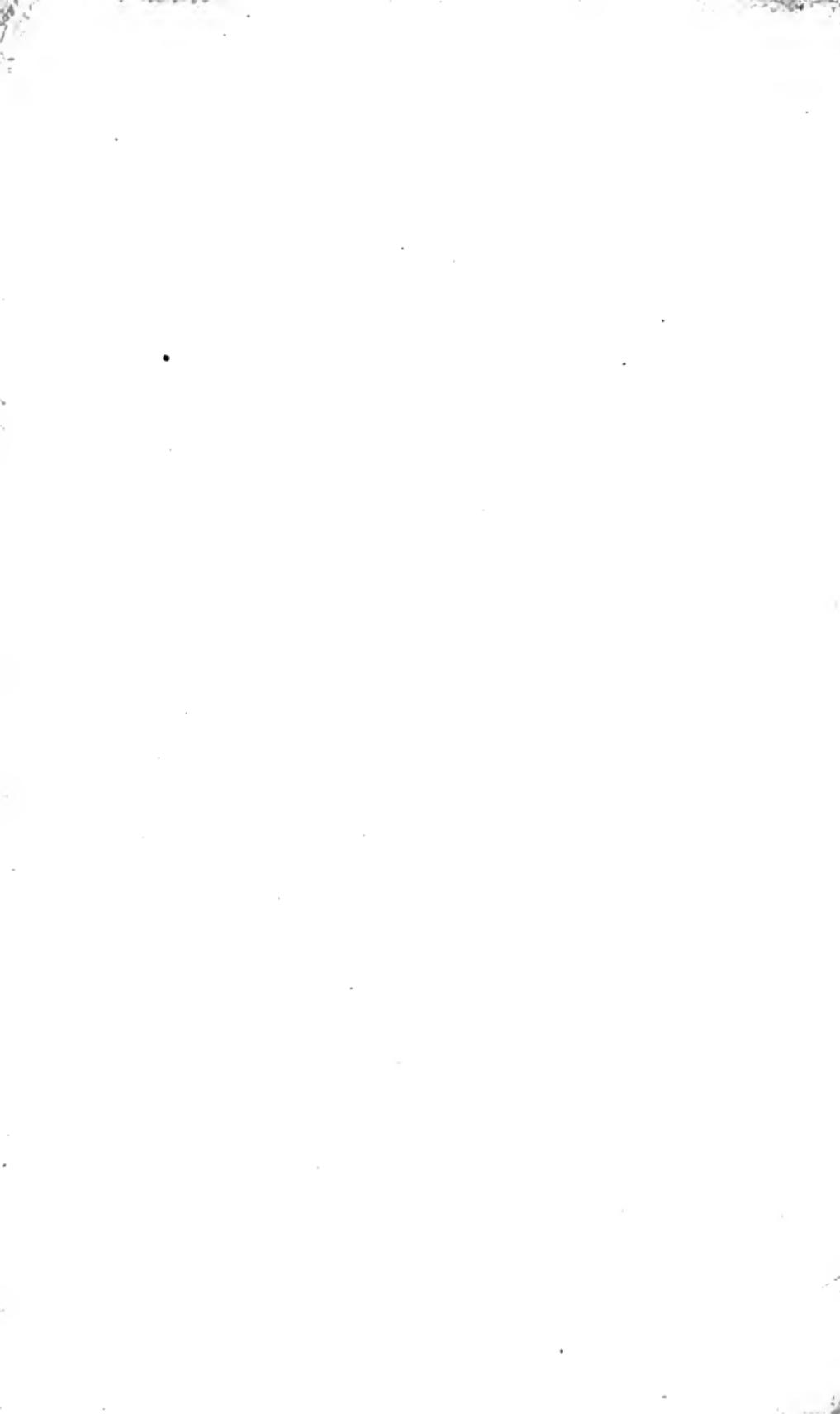
The hostile rivalry between the two races led to tragic results in Nova Scotia. This province, under the name of Acadia, had been first colonized by the French, but, by the treaty of Utrecht, it had been conceded to England. The French settlers, however, were permitted for some years to remain in peaceful possession under British rule and protection. But in 1748 this province entered on a new page of its history. At that date was signed the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle with France, and, as usual in those days, most of our troops on the conclusion of peace were disbanded.

On this occasion, however, the Government wisely offered inducements to a large contingent of them to settle in Nova Scotia. The offer was eagerly accepted, and the next year between three and four thousand emigrants, with their families, landed at Chebucto Harbour, and there founded the town of Halifax. Six years later the Acadians, as the French settlers were called, were forcibly expelled on account of their disloyalty to the British Government. They were taken on board a number of vessels and dispersed over the colonies of New England, New York, and Virginia. The story of their expulsion is told by Longfellow in his pathetic poem of "Evangeline."

IV. RIVALRY BETWEEN THE ENGLISH AND FRENCH IN AMERICA

THE keen rivalry experienced for centuries between the two races that live on opposite sides of the English Channel was shared in an intensified form by their countrymen in America. This feeling, being inflamed





by the expulsion of the French settlers from Nova Scotia, soon drove the rival colonists to fight to the death for supremacy.

The problem to be solved was no less than the momentous question: Should the great continent of North America be the inheritance of England or France? Should it become the future home of an English-speaking people, enjoying the liberty of English laws and institutions, modified by the will of the people themselves, or fall under the dominion of France with her paternal and military Government regulating in detail the lives of its inhabitants, and discouraging all individual enterprise and independent action? In a word, should the British or the French be the ruling race of North America? That question was soon to be answered. We have now come to the most critical period in the history of our empire.

The French claimed all America, from the Alleghanies to the Rocky Mountains, and from the Gulf of Mexico to the Polar Seas. They claimed it by right of discovery and partial occupation. It was her explorers who first made their way down the Mississippi, her missionaries who first visited the Indian tribes of the interior, her traders that first opened a market with the natives. But the French had hardly occupied any part of the region they had discovered. It is true they had founded Orleans at the mouth of the Mississippi, and partly colonized Louisiana; but between the delta of that river and the St. Lawrence there was still a vast wilderness, yielding nothing to civilization but beaver skins, with here and there a trading post or mission station. By the census of 1754 Canada could only

boast of 55,000 settlers. Add those of Louisiana and Cape Breton and the whole white population under the French flag would not exceed 80,000 ; whilst the British colonies, ranged along the Atlantic coast and occupying a strip of territory about 200 miles in width, numbered upwards of a million souls.

The Governor of Canada at that time was a man of bold spirit and clear insight. He felt that cost what it might France must hold fast to Canada, and link her to Louisiana by a chain of forts strong enough to hold back the British colonists, and confine them between the Atlantic and the Alleghanies. He saw that the English traders were crossing these mountains into the valley of the Ohio, poaching on the domains which France claimed as her own, ruining the French fur trade, and making friends of the natives by underselling the French traders.

The governor was convinced that something must be done, and done promptly, to drive back the intruders and to coop them up in their old domains. The king's ministers, at Versailles, were of the same mind, and ordered the governor to "send force enough to drive off the English from the Ohio, and cure them of all wish to return." It was not possible to proceed in this summary fashion. It was first necessary for the French to build forts at commanding points along the Ohio. The most important of these forts was Fort Duquesne, built at "the forks of the Ohio," where Pittsburg now stands.

A young officer, who later in life became famous—George Washington—was sent with a small force to expel the French, if possible, from this fort before they had time to gain a firm footing. He found the French

too numerous and too strongly posted for this, and had himself to stand a siege in a temporary fort, whose name of Fort Necessity tells its own tale. Washington was obliged to capitulate; but he and his men were allowed to march out with drums beating and all the honours of war. The defeat at Fort Necessity (1754) was doubly disastrous to the English, since it threw the Indians of the Ohio into the arms of the French. And when, next year, the smouldering war broke into flame, nearly all the western tribes drew their scalping-knives for France.

The Iroquois Indians, called the Five Nations, still remained faithful to the English; but they were sorely tempted to side with their old enemies, the French. One of their orators, at a meeting of some of the leading British colonists, at the little frontier town of Albany, thus concluded his speech: "Look about your country and see: you have no fortifications; no, not even in this city. It is but a step from Canada here, and the French may come and turn you out of doors. You desire us to speak from the bottom of our hearts, and we shall do it. Look at the French: they are men; they are fortifying everywhere. But you are all like women, bare and open, without fortifications."

They were induced, however, to renew the covenant with our nation. A large "chain-belt" of wampum was provided, on which the King of England was symbolically represented, holding in his embrace the colonies, the Five Nations and their allied tribes. The chief on accepting the belt said in reply: "We do now solemnly renew and brighten the covenant chain. We shall take the chain-belt to Onondaga, where our

council-fire always burns, and keep it so safe that neither thunder nor lightning shall break it."

The chief forts erected by the French, in addition to Duquesne, were Ticonderoga and Niagara. They were so placed as to command the chief routes into the interior, it being remembered that in a young unsettled country the water-ways are the chief means of communication. Fort Niagara blocked the way from Lake Ontario to the great lakes beyond ; Fort Ticonderoga commanded the passage from New England to Canada by way of Lake George and Lake Champlain and the River Richelieu, which carries their waters into the St. Lawrence ; whilst Fort Duquesne, at the forks of the Ohio, blocked the way to the west, which the River Ohio opened up through the boundless forests traversed by that river and its tributaries. Besides these three great forts many other French forts were dotted about so as to command the chief routes in the disputed country at the back of the Alleghanies. The French also took care to strengthen their position at Louisbourg, in Cape Breton Island, a fortified port that kept guard over the entrance to the Gulf of St. Lawrence.

It will be seen from the foregoing sketch what was the relative situation of the English and French in America at the outbreak of the "Seven Years' War," which began in 1756, and was destined to decide once for all the great questions at issue between the two rivals in that quarter of the globe. Few wars have had greater results in the history of the world, and none has brought greater triumphs to England ; but its opening for us was most inauspicious.

V. OUTBREAK OF THE SEVEN YEARS' WAR

FRANCE began the Seven Years' War with a great success. Whilst making noisy preparations at Brest, and assembling a large army upon the shores of the Channel, as if bent on invading England, she was silently preparing a squadron of war-ships at Toulon, which sailed before the declaration of war, convoying 150 transports, with 15,000 troops. A week later the army was safely landed in Minorca, and Port Mahon invested, while the fleet drew up in blockade before the harbour. This was a complete surprise. Admiral Byng was sent with a fleet to the rescue, but a practicable breach had been made in the fortress a week before his arrival.

After an indecisive engagement between the two fleets, the English admiral withdrew his ships to cover Gibraltar, and to await reinforcements, for he judged that the French fleet was superior to his own in men and metal. Port Mahon, one of the most valuable fruits of the Peace of Utrecht, now passed into the hands of the French. Admiral Byng was recalled and sent for trial before a court-martial. He was acquitted of personal cowardice, but found guilty of not doing his utmost either to defeat the French fleet or to relieve the garrison. He was, accordingly, condemned to be executed. The king refused to pardon him, and the unfortunate admiral was shot on board a man-of-war while sitting, blindfolded, in a chair on deck. The nation cordially approved, and thus drove home the lesson that an English admiral is expected to fight unless the odds against him are very heavy.

This was not the only reverse. On the Continent and in America nothing seemed to prosper. The men in command were old or incapable, the king's ministers were extremely feeble. There was one man that could save the nation, but the king had a strong dislike to him. This man was William Pitt, known in history as "The Great Commoner." With the appointment of Pitt, as War Minister (1757), in compliance with the demand of the nation, the fortunes of England began to brighten, and during the four years in which he held office continued to shine with increasing splendour.

The Great Commoner was not a man to flatter the people for popularity. He regarded the great mass of the people as constituting the nation's strength. They regarded him as their heaven-sent leader, born to raise their country to the highest pinnacle of power. He threw himself with an entire confidence on their patriotism and public spirit, and they responded with their full trust in him as a born leader of men, whose aims were unselfish, whose hands were clean, who had no personal ends to serve apart from the interests of his country. The passion for power and glory subdued in him all that is sordid in human nature, and he made the power and glory of England one with his own. His glowing patriotism was the spell by which he held England. Under the influence of his spirit and energy, England awoke from her lethargy. His own lofty spirit seemed to enter into the country he served. "No man," said a soldier of the day, "ever entered Mr. Pitt's closet who did not feel himself braver when he came out than when he went in." All England seemed to

spring into fresh life under the kindling influence of this one great man.

It is not meant that this great statesman was without faults. Vanity, for instance, the common weakness of small minds, was strongly developed in him. Nor is it meant that all he planned prospered. His failures have passed away and been forgotten ; his successes remain, for they have shaped and determined the history of nations. It was towards America that Pitt turned for his greatest triumphs. His first aim was to take Louisbourg, which at that time stood sentinel for the French at the entrance of the Gulf of St. Lawrence. In a safe harbour, under the guns of its fortress, the French ships could bide their time, ready to strike when the opportune moment came. With such a hostile force in the rear, it would not have been safe to attack Quebec.

Admiral Boscawen was accordingly sent out with 12,000 troops, placed under the command of General Amherst, to wrest Louisbourg, if possible, out of the hands of the French. In the harbour they found twelve French warships safely anchored under the guns of the fortress. On reconnoitring the shores for a landing-place for the troops, their task seemed hopeless. At length a cove was selected for the attempt, and Brigadier Wolfe was honoured with the command of the attacking party. The place selected was more strongly defended than it seemed. About a thousand Frenchmen lay behind entrenchments covered in front by fir trees, felled and laid on the ground. Eight cannon and swivels were planted to sweep every part of the beach, and these pieces were masked by young evergreens stuck in the ground before them.

When the English boats had come quite close, the batteries poured on them a deadly storm of grape and shot. To proceed in the face of this was certain destruction, and Wolfe gave a signal to sheer off. But three of the boats, being out of the zone of fire, made straight for the shore. It was a craggy coast lashed with breakers, but sheltered from the cannon by a projecting point. Wolfe hastened to support them. Many of the boats stove among the rocks and others were overset, but most of the men tumbled through the surf and climbed the crags. Forming his men in compact order, Wolfe attacked and carried with the bayonet the first French battery. Thus the first footing was gained, the first move of the great game was played and won. The great guns were now landed, and the siege commenced. It is pleasing to find that various courtesies were exchanged between the two commanders. Amherst sent letters and messages from wounded Frenchmen in his hands to Ducour, and begged his wife to accept a gift of pine-apples. She returned his courtesy by sending him a present of wine; after which amenities the cannon again roared.

Day after day, as the siege went on, the English lines grew closer and closer, and their fire more and more destructive. Of the enemy's guns, some were dismounted, others silenced by the musketry from the trenches. On the twenty-sixth day the last cannon was silenced and all was ready for the assault. The end had come. It was stipulated that the garrison should be sent to England as prisoners of war, and that all artillery and arms should be given up intact. Amherst proceeded to complete his conquest by the

subjugation of all the adjacent possessions of France, including Cape Breton, and what are now called Prince Edward Island and New Brunswick. The ardent and indomitable Wolfe, who had been the life of the siege, sailed for England to recruit his shattered health.

Meanwhile the British were foiled in an attack on Fort Ticonderoga, but were successful in capturing Fort Duquesne. The town which rose around the latter was called Pittsburg, out of compliment to the minister who had planned its capture. This success had a solid value. It opened the country beyond the Alleghanies to the pushing British colonists, alienated from France half her savage allies, and relieved the western frontier of our American colonies from the scourge of Indian warfare. Thus ended the campaign of 1758. The Canadian winter imposed a truce on the combatants.

VI. CONQUEST OF CANADA

THE conquest of Canada hinged on the capture of Quebec. Two expeditions were sent by different routes to meet before that fortress, one commanded by General Amherst, and the other by General Wolfe. The mouth of the St. Lawrence was, as it were, the front door of Canada, which now, by the capture of Louisbourg, stood wide open. There was also a side entrance by way of Lake Champlain and the river Richelieu, which was barred by Fort Ticonderoga. Amherst was directed to force the side entrance by the capture of this fort, whilst Wolfe was to proceed by way of the St. Lawrence. Wolfe had already won the admiration of the soldiers at the siege of Louisbourg, and was about to win undying fame at Quebec. No one had less the appearance of a

hero ; never was the soul of a hero encased in a frame so crazy ; nothing but the bright, piercing eye bespoke the spirit within. His life was a constant battling with ill-health. He seems always to have been at his best in the thick of battle ; most complete in his mastery over himself and others at a perilous crisis. He was only thirty-two when Pitt chose him to command the expedition against Quebec. When some one remarked to George II. that Pitt's new general was mad, " Mad is he ? " returned the king ; " then I hope he will bite some others of my generals."

The fleet, with nine thousand troops on board, sailed out of the harbour of Louisbourg in June, 1759, the officers drinking to the toast, " British colours on every French fort, port, and garrison in America." Fifteen months later this wild wish was realized, except at New Orleans at the mouth of the Mississippi. On the 27th June, the army landed on the Isle of Orleans, near Quebec. On the very next night the enemy made an attempt to destroy our fleet by means of fire-ships, filled with combustibles mixed with bombs, grenades, and old cannon and muskets loaded to the mouth. Some of them ran ashore before reaching the fleet ; the others were caught with grappling irons by the British tars, and towed safely out of harm's way.

East of the city is the river St. Charles ; at a short distance from it, further to the east, is the Montmorenci, and between the two rivers the French general, Montcalm, had placed his army, behind earthworks which lined the shore. The question was less how to fight the enemy than how to get at him. No stratagem that Wolfe could devise succeeded in drawing " the wary old

fellow," as he called Montcalm, from his advantageous post. "My antagonist," he says, "has wisely shut himself up in inaccessible entrenchments, so that I can't get at him without spilling a torrent of blood, and that perhaps to little purpose." On the last day of July, however, an attempt was made, the place selected being near the mouth of the Montmorenci. It was an unmitigated failure.

Wolfe seized Point Levi on the southern shore, opposite Quebec, and planted some batteries there which spread havoc and dismay in the city, but could make no impression on the citadel which crowned the impregnable cliff. Another month passed, and no progress had been made. In writing a dispatch to Mr. Pitt on September 6th, on his recovery from serious illness, Wolfe takes a most gloomy view of the situation: "I am so far recovered as to do business, but my constitution is entirely ruined, without the consolation of having done any considerable service to the State, or without any prospect of it." And yet, within a week of the date of that letter, which cast a dark cloud over England, the name of Wolfe had become immortal.

The time was fast approaching when the English fleet would have to leave the St. Lawrence to escape imprisonment in the ice. As a forlorn hope, it occurred to Wolfe that an attempt might be made to scale the heights under cover of night. About a mile above Quebec was a tiny bay, now called Wolfe's Cove, from which a narrow path was descried passing up the face of the woody precipice to a plateau called the Heights of Abraham. Close upon the brow of the hill was the post of a French captain with 150 men.

Whilst the main fleet engaged the attention of Montcalm by a feigned attack below Quebec, on the fateful night, Wolfe was quietly preparing for his enterprise ten miles further up the river, where a squadron of ships, with 3,600 troops on board, lay tranquil at its anchorage. Around it was collected a number of boats sufficient to take half the troops. At one o'clock the signal was given for the soldiers to enter the boats, and an hour later, when the tide began to ebb, the order was given to cast off and glide down with the current. The vessels, with the rest of the troops, were to follow a little later.

For full two hours the procession of boats floated silently down the St. Lawrence. The stars were visible, but the night was moonless and sufficiently dark. The leading company disembarked on a narrow strand at the foot of the heights to be climbed. The vanguard, led by Colonel Howe, began the ascent, each man pulling himself up by bushes, stumps of trees, and the projecting points of rock. The leading men on reaching the top saw in the dim light a cluster of tents, and made a dart at them. The French, taken by surprise, fled. The main body of British troops waited in their boats at the edge of the strand, all intently listening. Soon from the top came a sound of musket shots, followed by loud huzzas, and Wolfe knew that the position was gained. The word was given; the troops leaped from the boats and scaled the heights, clutching at trees and bushes, their muskets slung at their backs. As fast as the boats were emptied they returned for the troops left on board the ships.

When the day broke Wolfe's battalions were drawn up along the crest of the heights. They were soon



GENERAL WOLFE AT QUEBEC.

arranged in order of battle on the Plains of Abraham, just in front, waiting for the attack. At length, the enemy appeared, uttering loud shouts and firing while advancing. The British waited until the French were within forty yards and then rang out the command, and a crash of musketry answered. Another volley quickly followed, and then came the order to charge. As Wolfe led on his Grenadiers in the right wing a shot shattered his wrist. He wrapped his handkerchief about it and kept on. Another shot struck him, but he still advanced, when a third pierced his breast and brought him to the ground. He was carried to the rear, and there lay dying, when all at once an officer cried out : "They run ; see how they run !" "Who run ?" asked the dying hero. "The enemy, sir, they give way in all directions." "Then God be praised ; I shall die happy."

The brave Montcalm met with a similar fate. As, borne with the tide of fugitives, he approached the town, a shot passed through his body. He lingered until the next day. Amidst the public gardens of Quebec, there now stands an obelisk, bearing on one of its faces the word Montcalm and on the opposite face the name Wolfe ; two brave men equal in honour, in sense of duty, in patriotism.

Quebec soon afterwards opened its gates to the conquerors. Ticonderoga had already fallen into the hands of General Amherst, and Fort Niagara had also come into our possession. The conquest of Canada, however, was not yet complete ; for Montreal, its capital, remained intact. Nothing more, however, could be done till the following spring. Then General Amherst

resolved to advance against Montreal in three columns : one was to ascend the St. Lawrence from Quebec ; another to sail from Lake Champlain by the river Richelieu ; and a third to descend from Niagara by Lake Ontario and the river St. Lawrence. All in due time united at Montreal, which was then placed at their mercy. The governor was compelled to capitulate and to accept the hard terms of the English general, namely, that "the whole garrison of Montreal and all other French troops in Canada should lay down their arms, return to France, and not serve during the present war." By this capitulation Canada and all its dependencies passed to the British Crown. Protection of person and property was promised to all the colonists who were willing to remain in the country, and the free exercise of religion was assured to them.

The English conquest of Canada was a blessing in disguise to the French inhabitants, being to them the beginning of a new life. They had hitherto been treated as a nation of children, unable to think and act for themselves. Leave from some one in authority had to be obtained for everything : no one could buy or sell except at a fixed price ; no one might leave the colony without the governor's permission ; no one might speak his mind in public unless it squared with the doings of those in office.

With the English conquest all this was changed. The people were left free to think and act for themselves, and to express their thoughts freely. This spirit of freedom infused new life and vigour into the colony, and resulted in the increase of wealth and comfort, and in the growth of a genuine loyalty to the

British Crown. Through centuries of striving England herself had advanced from stage to stage of progress, and now, through a hard-earned victory, she taught the conquered colony to share the blessings she enjoyed. "A happier calamity never befell a people than the conquest of Canada by the British arms."

VII. LAYING THE FIRST STONE OF OUR INDIAN EMPIRE

WHAT General Wolfe did for England in Canada, Robert Clive, about the same time, accomplished for her in India. Here, as in America, the English and French were rivals for power. Both nations had an East India Company. The English merchants had factories, or trading-stations, at Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay ; the French had their headquarters at Pondicherry. Up to 1748 the two companies had confined themselves to their own proper business as merchants. But the appointment of Dupleix, as Governor at Pondicherry, led to a change of policy. From that time the French began to bid for empire, and the English were not slow to follow their lead.

India at that time was nominally under the rule of "The Great Mogul" ; but the viceroys, who ruled in his name, in the different provinces of the empire, were really independent princes. It was the aim of Dupleix to make France great, and himself rich, by taking sides in any dispute which might arise between the native princes about the right of succession. Such a dispute arose, in 1748, in the Carnatic. The claimant whom Dupleix favoured soon triumphed, by the help of French

troops, over his rival, who had lost all except the city of Trichinopoly, when Clive came to his rescue.

Hitherto, the English had quietly carried on their business as merchants, and the natives regarded them as a timid, unwarlike people. But the hour had come for a change of policy, and with the hour appeared the man. Robert Clive is admitted to be one of the master-builders of our empire, and to have laid the foundations of British rule in India. Although a clerk in the employ of the Company, he had already seen some service as a soldier, and was renowned for his valour. His adventurous spirit now urged him to quit the desk and gird on the soldier's sword. He proposed to save Trichinopoly from the French and their allies, not by attacking the besiegers, but by making a dash at Arcot, the capital of the Carnatic, about a hundred miles inland from Madras.

The young captain marched at the head of 200 English soldiers and 300 Sepoys, armed and drilled after the European fashion. Marching without concern in the midst of a terrific thunderstorm, they took the garrison by surprise, and entered the fort without striking a blow. A force of 3,000 men soon appeared to retake it. At dead of night, Clive marched out of the fort, attacked the sleeping camp, and won a complete victory without the loss of a single man. Then a force of 8,000 men encircled the city, and for fifty days the young captain foiled all their efforts to take it.

At last, the enemy stormed the fort, driving before them elephants whose foreheads were armed with iron plates. It was expected that the gates would yield to the shock of these living battering-rams. But the English

balls sent the huge beasts flying in terror into the crowded ranks of their own masters. However, a breach had been made, and the attack went on. Clive had placed his best marksmen in front, and ordered those in the rear to load and prime the muskets for them to fire. Three times the besiegers stormed the breach, and three times the attacking columns quailed before the leaden hail-storm that assailed them. During the following night the enemy abandoned the siege, leaving guns and stores to the victors.

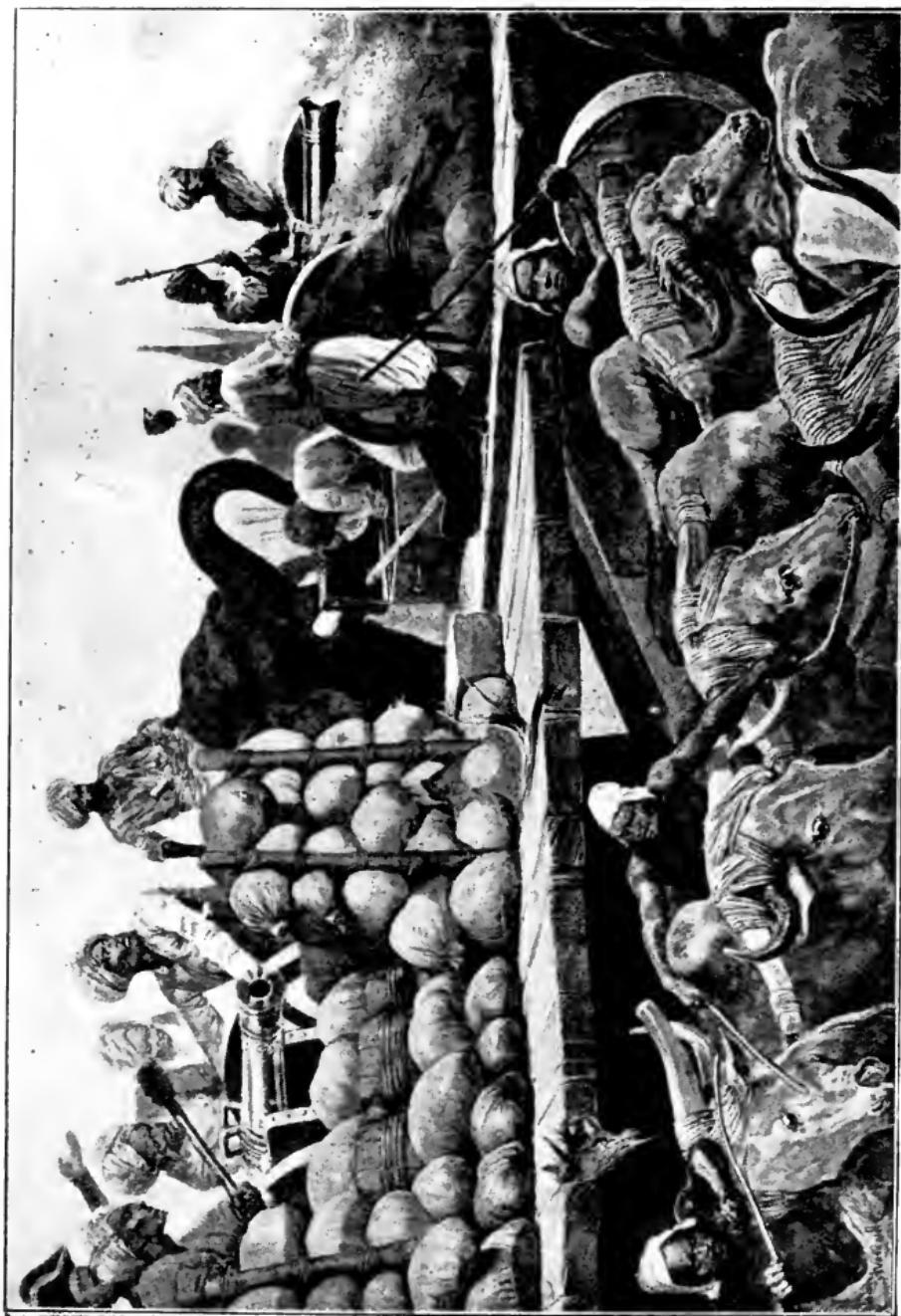
Clive's success at Arcot may be justly considered the first stone in the foundation of our Indian Empire. "Nothing," it is said, "succeeds like success." One victory after another led to the downfall of the prince that Dupleix had set up, and to the triumph of his rival. Dupleix himself was recalled to France, for the French Government regarded his ambitious designs as no better than a wild dream. But the wild dream of Dupleix for France was realized by Clive for England. Scarcely anything, however, could have seemed at the time less likely than that a trading company, separated from the mother-country by fifteen thousand miles of sea, and possessing in India only a few acres for the purpose of commerce, should, in less than a hundred years, spread its empire from Cape Comorin to the Himalayas, and from the mouth of the Indus to that of the Ganges.

VIII. FOUNDING BRITISH RULE IN INDIA

By the brave defence of Arcot the fame of the English and the name of Clive spread far and wide. A few years later that name and fame were borne to the

farthest bounds of India. The occasion of it all was a terrible tragedy enacted at Calcutta. Surajah Dowlah, the Nabob of Bengal, hated the English, and resolved to expel them from his province. Marching to Calcutta with a large army, he seized all our countrymen within reach, and thrust them for the night into a small room, since called "The Black Hole of Calcutta." When the door was thrown open in the morning, only 23 persons out of 146 staggered out alive. All the rest had fallen dead from the intense heat and suffocating air. When the news reached Madras there went up a cry for vengeance, and all eyes turned to Clive as the avenger. A regiment, the famous 39th, had lately arrived from England, and now formed the backbone of Clive's force. Admiral Watson was also at hand with a small fleet, and sailed with the avenging army to the mouth of the Hooghly (Hugli).

On their arrival the work of retribution commenced. Calcutta was soon retaken, and when it appeared that the nabob was looking for assistance to the French, they determined to attack their settlement at Chandernagore. Watson directed the expedition by water, Clive by land. The success of the combined movements was rapid and complete. The fort, the garrison, the artillery, the military stores, all fell into the hands of the English. Clive, emboldened by success, now set the nabob at defiance, and marched towards Moorshedabad, his capital, with his small force of 3,000 men. Surajah Dowlah assembled, on the plain of Plassey, a mighty army of 58,000 men, supported by 50 cannon, each drawn by a team of white oxen and pushed on from behind by an elephant.



AT THE BATTLE OF PLASSEY,
ADVANCE OF THE NABOB'S ARTILLERY ON ITS MOBILE PLATFORM.

A small river separated the two armies. Clive hesitated to cross this stream, which would cut off his retreat in case of defeat. He called a council of war. It decided against crossing the river with three thousand men in face of sixty thousand. Clive, still doubtful, went apart under some palm trees, and at the end of an hour gave the order to advance. By the end of the day he found himself face to face with the nabob's army, which was entrenched in a strong position. Shortly after daybreak next morning, the nabob began the attack with his artillery; but Clive kept his men so well sheltered that it did little execution. No intelligible account of the battle has ever been written. We know, however, that disorder and dismay soon spread in the ranks of the enemy under an attack from Clive's well-disciplined force, and that Surajah, under the influence of fear, gave the order to retreat. Clive immediately darted forward with all his men, while the hosts of the enemy fled panic-stricken before them. The nabob mounted a swift dromedary, and was the first to reach Moorshedabad, with a bodyguard of 2,000 horsemen. The battle of Plassey was fought on 23rd June, 1757, a date from which is reckoned the rise of the British Empire in India.

As an immediate result of the battle Surajah Dowlah was deposed and Meer Jaffier made nabob. Clive was taken by the new nabob into the royal treasury of Bengal, and there, walking between heaps of gold and silver, and of rubies and diamonds, was invited to help himself. He accepted between two and three hundred thousand pounds, and became the real ruler of Bengal, Meer Jaffier being only as a tool in his hands. Much had

yet to be done to place the power of the English in Bengal on a firm footing, but that result was achieved before Clive sailed for England (1760).

After a stay of five years in England our hero returned to India, as Governor of Bengal, with the title of Lord Clive. He obtained a grant from the Mogul to the Company of the right to collect the revenues, and to maintain order, in the provinces of Bengal, Behar, and Orissa, thus placing English rule in that part of India on a legal basis. He then set himself the most difficult task of his life, and that was to put down the corrupt practices of the officials of the Company, who were growing rapidly rich by accepting bribes and dealing unjustly.

The whole body of officials seemed to be set, as one man, against the reforms of the new governor, but the iron will of Clive was too strong for them all. By his conquest over his own countrymen he became the friend of the Hindoo, and at the same time the friend of British rule in India; for if the first establishment of that rule was due to British valour, its maintenance is due to British truthfulness, justice, and fair dealing. "English valour and English intelligence," says Lord Macaulay, "have done less to extend and to preserve our Oriental Empire than English veracity. All that we could have gained by imitating the doublings, the evasions, the fictions, the perjuries which have been employed against us, is as nothing when compared with what we have gained by being the one power in India on whose word reliance can be placed. No oath which superstition can devise, no hostage, however precious, inspires a hundredth part of the confidence which is

produced by the 'yea, yea,' and 'nay, nay,' of a British envoy."

IX. NAVAL TRIUMPHS IN THE SEVEN YEARS' WAR

IT will be remembered that the conquest of Canada and the founding of British rule in India occurred about the same time, and in the course of the great Seven Years' War, which lasted from 1756 to 1763. The marvellous successes of England in that war were greatly, if not chiefly, owing to her maritime superiority. The seas were everywhere the open highway for her ships. Her warships protected her commerce most effectually, and enabled the English merchants, in spite of war, to carry on a profitable trade. Her fleets were on every sea and coast to protect her colonies, to keep open the communication between the different parts of her widely-scattered possessions, and to lend valuable support in her military operations by transporting troops, by taking part in the siege of the enemy's ports, by conveying supplies of all kinds. England's command of the sea, at the same time, prevented the enemy in great measure from doing any of these things in the support and defence of their own commerce and colonies.

France, on finding herself outmatched on the sea and unable to cope with her enemy in all quarters of the world, determined to concentrate her efforts upon one object, and that was the invasion of Great Britain. From the beginning of 1759 preparations were made in the ports of France for embarking 50,000 men for the

invasion of England and 12,000 for the invasion of Scotland. Two squadrons were fitted out, one at Toulon and the other at Brest. It was intended to effect a junction, and use the combined fleets for escorting the transports conveying the army. But the attempt to unite the two squadrons proved a dismal failure. The Toulon squadron was unable to escape the vigilance of the English admiral, who kept guard at Gibraltar over the road that leads from the Mediterranean into the Atlantic. The destruction or dispersal of the Toulon fleet by Admiral Boscawen put an end to the invasion of England. The French minister still hoped, by means of the squadron at Brest, to attempt the invasion of Scotland.

Admiral Hawke kept watch off Brest. At length a violent storm from the west obliged him to run into Tor Bay for shelter, and before he could resume the blockade the French ships, under the command of Admiral Conflans, had escaped. Whilst the French fleet was pursuing a small English squadron that had been engaged in blockading Quiberon, a signal hoisted by the French rear ship informed the admiral that his own ships were being chased by the enemy. Admiral Hawke, with a fleet of twenty-three ships-of-the-line, was in close pursuit. Conflans then called in his chasing ships and made for Quiberon Bay, trusting and believing that Hawke would not dare to follow, under the condition of the weather, into a bay full of banks and shoals and lined with dangerous reefs.

Hawke did not hesitate for a moment. He felt that the French ships would serve as pilots, or at any rate take the ground before his; and he knew that his men were superior to the enemy in seamanship. Before the

French flagship passed through the mouth of the Bay, the rear ships were already in action. The two fleets were in great peril from the heavy gale, the rough sea, the lee shore, the treacherous bay. One French seventy-four being hard pressed, ventured to open her lower-deck ports, when the sea rolling in carried her down with all on board but twenty men. Another was sunk by Hawke's flagship. Two struck their colours, and two others ran ashore to keep out of English hands. The rest were dispersed. Hawke lost two ships, which ran upon a shoal and were wrecked ; his losses in action were slight. With the destruction of the Brest fleet, all possibility of invasion passed away. The victory of Quiberon by Admiral Hawke (1759) deserves a foremost place in any narrative of the exploits of the British navy.

The year 1759 ought to be especially remembered in the history of our country. It saw the fall of Quebec and witnessed the sea-fight of Quiberon Bay. In the same year the important island of Guadeloupe, in the West Indies, passed from the French into British hands ; whilst from the seas of the East Indies the French fleet finally withdrew, leaving all places in India over which the French flag still waved to fall inevitably under our power. Even on the Continent the same year saw a triumph of our soldiers at Minden. There an English contingent of six regiments was confronted with French cavalry ten thousand strong. The French general, in writing his despatch after the battle, speaks in these terms : "I have seen what I never thought to be possible —a single line of infantry break through three lines of cavalry, ranked in order of battle, and tumble them to ruin !"

As if to complete the triumph of the English in this Seven Years' War, the French induced the Spaniards to come to their rescue (1762). The consequences were disastrous to the new combatants. Before the end of the year Spain was bereft of some of her most valuable possessions. In the West Indies she lost Havana, the most important port of Spanish America, with twelve ships-of-the-line and £3,000,000 in money and merchandise. In the East Indies the loss of Manila was followed by the surrender of the whole group of the Philippine Islands. Treasure-ships also were captured containing silver £1,400,000 in value. In Portugal also Spain was equally unfortunate. The Portuguese having refused to join the alliance against "the tyrants of the seas," their country was invaded by a Spanish army. England, on being appealed to for help, sent a fleet and landed at Lisbon 8,000 soldiers, who, in combination with the Portuguese army, drove the Spaniards over the frontier and even carried the war into Spain itself. England, in fact, was mistress of the seas, and, in consequence, able to concentrate her power wherever there was a port. The war was brought to a close by the Treaty of Paris, in 1763.

By its terms France renounced all claims to Canada, Nova Scotia, and all the islands of the St. Lawrence. She ceded also the valley of the Ohio and all her territory on the east of the Mississippi, with the exception of New Orleans. Spain, as an equivalent for Havana, yielded Florida, under which name were comprised all her continental possessions east of the Mississippi. Thus free scope was given for the expansion of the British colonies beyond the Alleghanies, and a vast region, now

included in the Dominion of Canada, was added to the British possessions in America. England also gained several of the West India Islands, and was again put in possession of Minorca, with Port Mahon. In India England retained her conquests, except Pondicherry and Chandernagore, which were restored to France on condition that they should be held simply for purposes of trade.

Thus, as the result of the Seven Years' War, Great Britain had grown into the British Empire. The expenses of the war, however, had been enormous. The National Debt now amounted to £140,000,000. This fact was fraught with important consequences, as we are about to see. Never before had England played so great a part in the history of the world ; never before had she given such proofs of her great resources and mighty sea-power ; never before had she achieved such a high position and prestige in the eyes of the nations.

CHAPTER VIII

England's Great Loss and Recovery

OUR narrative must now be pitched in the minor key, for our country is about to pass through a period of defeat and disaster in which she suffers the loss of her principal colonies in America, in which her possessions in other quarters of the world are imperilled, in which her own shores are in constant danger of invasion. The triumphs Great Britain had won in the Seven Years' War over France and Spain naturally created in them a desire to avenge themselves at the first favourable moment. That moment came with England's first defeat in the war with her American colonies.

Never was England's position since she became a great maritime power in so great danger. Everywhere she had to fight to hold her own. Everywhere she was thrown on the defensive. The British lion, in fact, had to stand at bay. Though we have to deplore the rending of the empire, in consequence of the war between the mother-country and her children, we have reason to be proud of the resolute stand made by our forefathers in the face of their foreign foes. And not less have we reason to rejoice at our country's wonderful recovery after defeat and disaster.

England was now about to learn a lesson on the way to retain colonies after planting them. She was going to lop off, through her own unwisdom, some of the most fruitful branches of her wide-spreading empire. It was a costly sacrifice, but one not made in vain. The loss of our American colonies has taught us how to avoid giving offence to our countrymen across the seas, and how to retain their sympathy and kindly feelings for the island-home of their forefathers, and to make them desirous of remaining fellow-citizens with ourselves of the same great empire.

I. LOSS OF THE AMERICAN COLONIES

THE attachment of the American colonies to the mother-country was never stronger than at the close of the Seven Years' War, in 1763. The colonists were proud of their descent from British ancestors, and gloried in belonging to a nation so renowned for its achievements. But this feeling of loyalty and attachment was soon to receive a serious shock. As often is the case in family quarrels, *money* was the cause of the estrangement that arose between the American colonists and their relatives "at home." The triumphs of the late war had caused an enormous addition to the National Debt, and necessitated the levying of new or increased taxes. A great addition had also been made to the responsibilities of the British Government by the conquest of Canada. It was necessary to devise means for defending what British arms had won. The colonies, also, were constantly exposed to Indian raids, and the savage use of the scalping-knife. The British

Government, accordingly, resolved to keep a standing army in America of 10,000 men.

It was obviously right and just for the colonists to contribute to the maintenance of such an army. They did not object to be taxed, but they refused to be taxed by the British Parliament. "We will not allow," said they, "the British Parliament to thrust their hands into our pockets." They maintained that, as Englishmen, they were entitled to be taxed by their representatives only, that is, in their own colonial parliaments; and finding that the British Legislature, after making many concessions, still insisted on the right to tax the colonies, they resolved to fight for their independence.

The thirteen colonies between Nova Scotia and Florida sent delegates to a general Congress at Philadelphia. A Federal Union was here formed, leaving to each colony the right to regulate its own internal affairs, but vesting in Congress the power to legislate on all matters affecting the whole community. They wisely appointed George Washington as their Commander-in-Chief.

To his prudence, perseverance, ability, and disinterested patriotism, the Americans are chiefly indebted for their ultimate success. It was only as the weary fight went on that his countrymen learnt, little by little, the greatness of their leader—his silence under difficulties, his calmness in the hour of danger or defeat, the patience with which he waited, the quickness and hardness with which he struck home when the opportunity came.

At first, Congress sought the redress of their grievances by an appeal to the Government at home in the form of a petition, known as "The Olive Branch." But as this failed to effect a reconciliation, Congress resolved

on separation from the mother-country. A formal document was drawn up, called a Declaration of Independence. "We," ran its solemn words, "the representatives of the United States of America, in Congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, solemnly publish and declare that these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, Free and Independent States." It was adopted by the Congress, July 4th, 1776, a day from which is dated the national life of the United States.

Had the mother-country been left free to concentrate her efforts on the war with her refractory colonies in America, they would hardly have gained their independence at that time. But England had in the Seven Years' War brought two great powers to their knees, and they had since been strenuously preparing for revenge, and anxiously watching for the opportunity. With the first disaster to the British in the American War the opportunity presented itself. The disaster was the surrender of General Burgoyne's army of 6,000 men at Saratoga (1777). Burgoyne had been ordered to march from Canada along Lake Champlain and Lake George, and then to follow the course of the Hudson river. Meanwhile, General Clinton was to march from New York with 3,000 men, and join hands with Burgoyne half-way. Had these operations been successful, the New England States, which formed the focus of rebellion, would have been completely separated from the rest of the colonies. But the obstacles to be overcome had been under-rated. Burgoyne's force was surrounded at Saratoga by 15,000 men, and compelled by famine to surrender before Clinton could possibly arrive.

The success of the colonists at Saratoga brought France into the field, and before long Spain joined her. The object they had in view was thus concisely expressed in the French manifesto: "To avenge their respective injuries, and to put an end to that tyrannical empire which England has usurped, and claims to maintain, upon the ocean." By the terms of the alliance formed between France and Spain the invasion of Great Britain or Ireland was to be undertaken, and every effort made to recover Minorca and Jamaica, and both Powers bound themselves to grant neither peace nor truce until Gibraltar had fallen.

The campaigns in America in the three years following the surrender at Saratoga were not marked by any decisive battle. The tide of victory ebbed and flowed, but the war consisted for the most part of skirmishes, sieges, marches, and countermarches, each general trying to wear out his opponent, and to profit by any error he might make. At length, in 1781, Lord Cornwallis, an English general of high repute, who had frequently given the colonial troops a sharp and bitter lesson in fighting, became hemmed in by an ever-increasing force at Yorktown. Help could only reach him from the sea, and unfortunately the English fleet that hastened to the rescue was beaten off by a larger French fleet commanded by Admiral De Grasse. The victorious fleet then sailed into Chesapeake Bay, and joined in the siege of Yorktown. Cornwallis was soon obliged to surrender, with all his forces. The hope of subduing the colonies hardly survived this disaster. The conflict flickered through a year longer, but no serious operations in the colonies were undertaken.

The grand success of the colonists was undoubtedly due in great measure to the help they received from the French in men, money, and ships. The great influence of sea power is repeatedly seen in the course of this war. By means of their navy the English were at first able to transport their troops and supplies much more rapidly than the colonists; but when the French declared war and sent large fleets across the Atlantic, this advantage was lost. And when a victorious French fleet appeared, as we have seen, before Yorktown, the only path of safety was closed to our troops. Washington himself was strongly of opinion that "a decisive naval superiority was the basis upon which every hope of success must ultimately depend." "You will have observed," he says to the French admiral, De Grasse, "that whatever efforts are made by the land armies, the navy must have the casting vote."

It may seem remarkable that the newly-acquired province of Canada did not band itself with the other American colonies. This arose from the fact that just before the war an Act of Parliament had conceded to the Canadians all that they desired. The ancient laws and customs of the province were retained, and the Roman Catholic religion, which was that of the great majority of the inhabitants, was recognised as the religion of the State. This wise and liberal treatment secured the loyalty of the Canadians and attached them to the British Crown. The same feeling of loyalty attached many of the American colonists themselves to the fortunes of the old country. They were known as the "United Empire Loyalists." They fought on the side of England rather than help to rend the Empire.

At the conclusion of the War of Independence, many thousands of these loyalists refused to exchange the "Union Jack" for the "Stars and Stripes," and migrated to Canada, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia, thus materially strengthening the British feeling of the community in that part of the Empire.

II. THE BRITISH LION AT BAY

HAVING seen that the war with the American colonies ended in their separation from the mother country, let us see how England, in the course of that war, fared elsewhere. She was still the greatest maritime power, taken singly, but her navy was outmatched, at least in the number of ships and guns, by the combined fleets of France and Spain. And when Holland joined the league against her, England's cause seemed desperate. Her Channel fleet was more than once driven into its ports by overwhelming forces, and her shores were in imminent danger of invasion. Everywhere she stood on the defensive.

Gibraltar was invested by Spain immediately on her declaration of war (1779). To supply this great fortress with provisions and ammunition was a most difficult and dangerous undertaking for our fleet. It was, however, successfully achieved by Admiral Rodney, in January, 1780. In the course of the voyage he fell in with, and captured, a Spanish squadron of seven ships-of-war, and sixteen supply ships, which were added to his own for the victualling of Gibraltar. A week later, when off Cape St. Vincent, Rodney espied a Spanish fleet of eleven sail-of-the line, gave chase, and cutting in between the enemy and his port, captured the Commander-in-

Chief, with six of his battle-ships, whilst a seventh was blown up. The convoy, with ample supplies, reached Gibraltar in safety.

The siege went on for three years. At last the allies, in September, 1782, resolved to concentrate all their efforts on the coveted fortress, and to make a grand attack by land and sea. Besides the works on the isthmus, which joins the rock to the mainland, where 300 pieces of artillery were now mounted, the chief reliance of the assailants was placed on ten floating batteries, which were supposed to be both shot and fire proof. Fifty war-ships were to give their aid, besides forty gun-boats and as many bomb-vessels. Twelve thousand French troops were brought to reinforce the Spaniards in their grand assault, as soon as the guns had made a practical breach.

After a bombardment from the works on the isthmus for four successive days, the ten floating-batteries were brought into action. The besieged, under the command of General Elliott, replied with fury. For four hours the enemies' batteries stood the ordeal well. Cold shot glanced off their sides, or failed to get through, while the self-acting apparatus for extinguishing fires caused by hot shot worked well. About two o'clock, however, smoke was seen to issue from one of the batteries, and the same misfortune befell others. In the end, nine of the ten blew up, with the loss of 1,500 men, four hundred others being saved from the midst of the fire by the English seamen. The only hope left to the allies was to starve out the garrison, and to this end their fleets now devoted themselves, but in vain. Lord Howe, in command of a powerful fleet, kept the enemy off, whilst

his supply ships slipped in and safely anchored in the harbour.

Port Mahon, in the meanwhile, had been obliged to surrender to the allies—a surrender induced by the ravages of scurvy, consequent upon the lack of vegetables and confinement in the foul air of bombproof casemates.

The war was drawing to a close ; but fortunately for England, the most brilliant victory of the whole war had fallen to her flag in the West Indies, a few months before her triumph at Gibraltar. The object which the allies had set before them in the Western Hemisphere was the capture of Jamaica, which originally belonged to Spain. It was their intention to unite for this enterprise at Cap Français, in Hayti, fifty ships-of-the-line, and twenty thousand troops. This intention was defeated by Rodney, in the celebrated victory of April 12th, 1782, off Dominica, over Admiral De Grasse, the hero of Chesapeake Bay. The battle is famous for the skilful tactics of the victor, by which the French line was broken through in two places. Five ships fell to the English, including De Grasse's flagship. And curiously enough, upon these particular ships was found the whole train of artillery intended for the reduction of Jamaica. The name of Rodney stands high on the roll of commanders in the British navy. In the course of the three years he held his command, Rodney had added twelve line-of-battle ships, all taken from the enemy, to the British navy, and destroyed five more. He had also taken a French, a Spanish, and a Dutch admiral, all of whom held the chief command in their respective fleets.

By the Treaty of Versailles (1783) which brought this

great war to a close, the independence of the United States was conceded. To Spain England surrendered Florida and Minorca. From France Great Britain received back all the islands she had lost in the West Indies except Tobago ; whilst in India, all that the French had lost was restored. The comparatively easy terms obtained by the English were due, in no small measure, to the want, on the part of her opponents, of money for prolonging the war.

England, indeed, had weathered the storm with little damage beyond the loss of her American colonies, and they still remained to her as a splendid field for emigration and commerce. The old bond, however, of a common patriotism was broken. A legacy of pride and resentment was handed down to the children of both nations, and this has, at times, embittered the relations between them. But a better day has now dawned. A new bond of sympathy has sprung up between them as two branches of the same Anglo-Saxon race. A voice has passed across the Atlantic from either side, and this is the message it tells :—

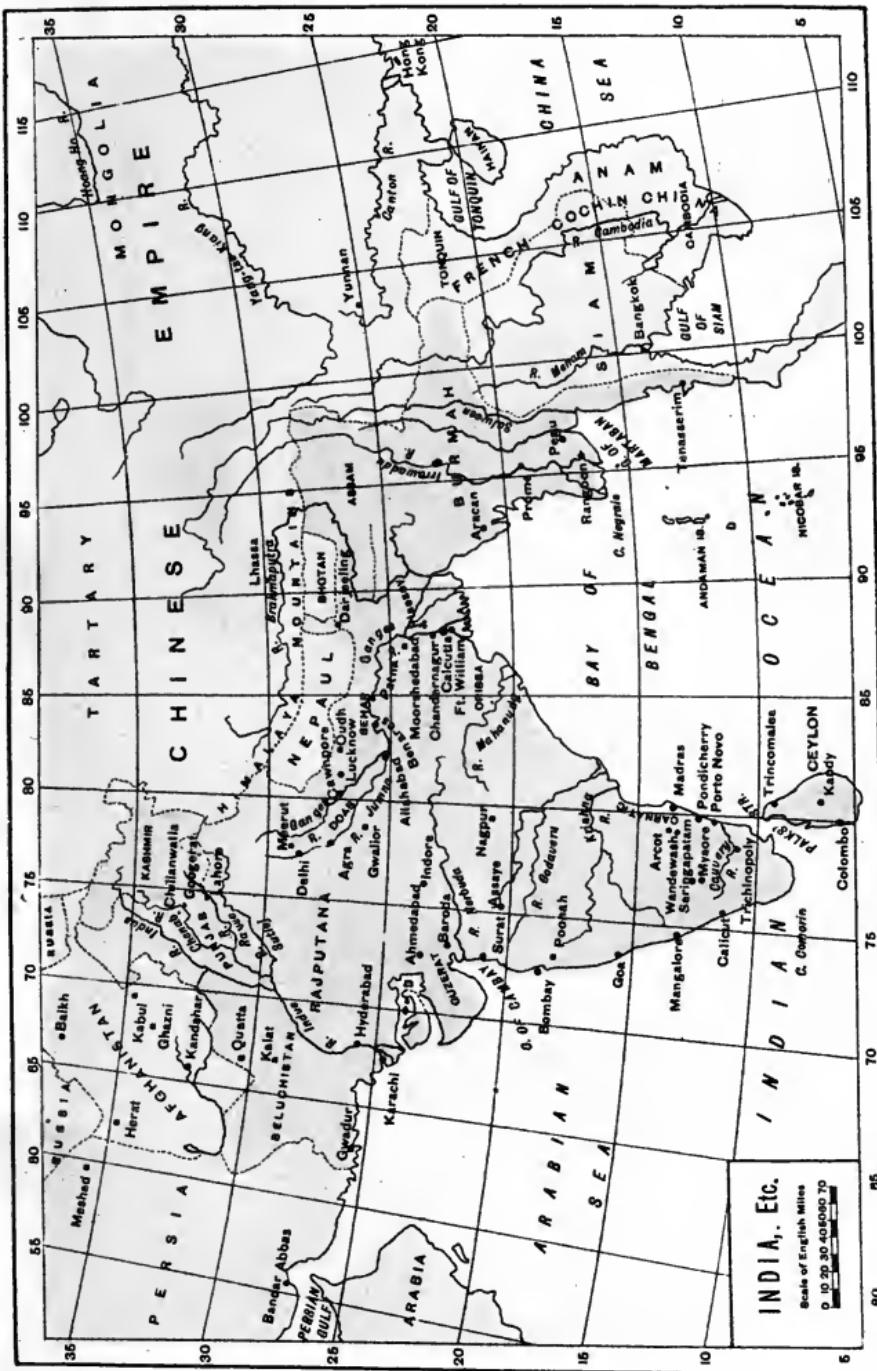
“ Kinsmen, hail !
We severed have been too long :
Now let us have done with a worn-out tale,
The tale of an ancient wrong,
And our friendship last long as Love doth last,
And be stronger than Death is strong.”

III. CONSOLIDATING BRITISH RULE IN INDIA

HAPPILY for England, during the time of stress and storm just reviewed, there was one part of her empire whose foundations had recently been laid by the genius

of Clive, in which her fortunes suffered no loss, in which her interests were in the capable hands of Warren Hastings. He had been two years at the desk in Calcutta when news reached him that Clive had taken Arcot, and thus laid the first stone of our Indian Empire. In the work of building up that empire, Warren Hastings was destined to play a part hardly second to that of Clive himself. As it fell to Clive to found British rule in India so it fell to Hastings to consolidate that rule.

When Clive came to Calcutta to avenge the outrage of the "Black Hole," Hastings threw away his pen and took the sword and fought with him at Plassey. But Clive saw that "there was more in his head than his arm," and employed him as his agent at the Court of the new Nabob, Meer Jaffier. From this time Hastings steadily rose in the service of the East India Company, until, in 1774, he was made Governor-General of India. He resolved, at all hazards, to make England the paramount power in India. His mind was full of vast plans of conquest, and for carrying them out immense sums of money were needed. The devices he adopted for acquiring "the sinews of war" have left a dark shadow on his name. His object, however, was not to enrich self, but to extend the power and rule of England. As in the time of Clive, so in that of Warren Hastings, it was a question whether the English or the French should be the supreme power in India, and Hastings was determined that the "Star of the East" should not enhance the glory of France. Nor was it his intention that any native princes should gain the upper hand in India.





We must not think of India as one nation like England, but as containing various races, differing in language, religion, and form of government. In the time of Warren Hastings it comprised a medley of nations with no better bond of union than the nominal headship of the "Great Mogul." There was, however, one group of states with some cohesion. This was the Mahratta Confederacy, and for a long time it proved our most dangerous foe. The original seat of that fierce and cunning people was the wild range of hills which runs along the western coast of India. When the Mogul Empire fell to pieces, sometime previously, Mahratta chiefs made themselves masters of the central and northern provinces, and aimed at becoming the supreme power of India. On hearing that they had concluded an alliance with the French, Hastings determined to strike the first blow. The Mahratta States between the rivers Nerbudda and Jumna were the first to be attacked. Several brilliant actions spread the military renown of the English through regions where no European flag had ever been seen. Captain Popham, in particular, gained great fame for England when he snatched, by escalade, a rock-fortress all had thought impregnable—the "castled-crag" of Gwalior.

Whilst thus engaged in reducing the pretensions of the Mahrattas, news reached Hastings that France had declared war (1778). This intelligence gave a new turn to the energies of our Governor-General. All the French factories in Bengal were seized. Orders were sent to Madras to occupy Pondicherry. Nine new battalions of sepoys were raised, and to Hastings' great delight there arrived from England, to take the chief command of the

forces, Sir Eyre Coote, well-known in India for his great victory at Wandewash twenty years before—a victory which had led to the extinction of French rule in India.

All was in readiness for the French, and it was known that a great expedition was on the way from France, when on a sudden an army of ninety-thousand men, well disciplined under the direction of French officers, came pouring through the wild passes which led down from the table-land of Mysore to the plains of the Carnatic. They swept down under the command of the great Hyder Ali, who had founded the kingdom of Mysore, and who proved one of the most formidable antagonists with whom the English in India have had to contend. In a few days the whole country was scoured up to the gates of Madras, and a British army utterly routed. Only a few fortified places remained to us in Southern India.

A swift ship flying before the south-west monsoon brought the evil tidings in a few days to Calcutta. Then was seen what the genius of Hastings was able to effect. Sir Eyre Coote was despatched with a large military force, which happily reached Madras before the French armament arrived in the Indian seas. Hyder had reduced Arcot and was besieging Wandewash when he heard of Coote's arrival. He immediately raised the siege and marched southwards in the hope of French support. Coote followed and brought him to battle at Porto Novo, a haven some forty miles south of Pondicherry. He had only nine thousand men to oppose to the myriads of Mysore, yet after six hours of conflict, Hyder fled in utter dismay. The French fleet on its arrival was unable to turn the scale of victory.

The wars in India were waged at the expense of the country itself. Hastings had much ado to raise the necessary funds. We find him in his straits for money making exorbitant demands upon the Rajah of Benares. And when the Rajah resisted his claims, his territory was annexed to Bengal, and the prince himself became, like the Nabob of Bengal, a mere pensioner dependent on the Governor-General. Hastings next looked to Oudh as a mine of wealth from which to draw the supplies required for the payment of his troops. The means he adopted has left a stain upon his name, and upon the minds of his countrymen the painful consciousness that our empire in India has not always been built on honourable lines. Hastings was fertile in expedients for compassing his ends, but both the means and the ends were not always free from the taint of dishonour.

In all his schemes for the success of his rule and the honour of his country, Hastings was greatly thwarted by a member of the Supreme Council, named Francis. The quarrel between them at last led to a duel. Francis's pistol missed fire, and Hastings obligingly waited until he had reprimed. This time the pistol went off, but the shot flew wide of the mark. Then Hastings calmly returned the shot, and the bullet entered the right side of his foe. As soon as he was well enough to travel, Francis went home to England, and poisoned men's minds against his late antagonist.

The administration of Hastings, which terminated in 1785, closed after all its storms, with scarce a cloud upon its sky in all India. But on his return to England, he was impeached for the wrongs he had committed in the course

of his government. The trial of Hastings in Westminster Hall ranks among the greatest in our history, and for the display of eloquence is unrivalled. It was only after seven years, over which the trial drew its weary length, that he was acquitted. The nation had by this time forgotten his faults and remembered only his services. Indeed, when he appeared, twenty years later, in the House of Commons to give evidence on his work in India, the whole crowded House rose and stood uncovered to mark their respect for the man who had done and suffered so much for his country. It should also be remembered in his favour that if he despoiled rich nobles and princes, he protected the poor Bengalees from harm.

"Under the nabobs," says Macaulay, "the hurricane of Mahratta cavalry had passed annually over the rich alluvial plain of the Ganges. But even the Mahratta shrank from a conflict with the mighty children of the sea; and the immense rich harvests of the Lower Ganges were safely gathered in under the protection of the English sword. What is peculiar to Hastings is that, being the chief of a small band of strangers, who exercised boundless power over a great native population, he made himself beloved both by the subject many and the dominant few." One homely instance may be given of the general security felt by the poor Indians, under British rule. "A good rain this, for the bread," said one Indian peasant to another. "Yes," was the reply, "and a good government under which one may eat bread in safety." There is one of the secrets of our success in India.

IV. CAPTAIN COOK'S VOYAGES

THE British Empire owes its rise and growth partly to conquest, partly to discovery. We turn now from the setting up of that Empire in India by force of arms to the preparation made for its further extension by the discovery and exploration of new lands. George III., who began his long reign in 1760, was a great patron of explorers. "Nothing," he said, "can redound more to the honour of this nation as a maritime power, to the dignity of the Crown of Great Britain, and to the advancement of the trade and navigation thereof, than to make discoveries of countries hitherto unknown." The great field for discovery in which King George was chiefly interested, was the vast ocean between America and Asia, and which on his accession was almost wholly unknown to Europeans. Of the many discoverers of his reign, the foremost place is due to Captain Cook, who, between 1768 and 1779, made three voyages of discovery from end to end of the great Pacific Ocean, from the impassable barrier of ice in the north to that in the south.

This celebrated explorer was the son of a day-labourer in Yorkshire, and, when a boy of six or seven, was set to work at bird-scaring on a farm. The farmer's wife, taking an interest in the lad, taught him to read and write. A year or two later we find him ship-boy to a collier. Whilst serving as a sailor before the mast, Cook did what was seldom done by men in his position, he went on with his learning, and mastered the mysteries of navigation. For thirteen years he served what may be called his apprenticeship to his life's work ; learning not only the science of seamanship,

but what was equally important, the art of taking things as they came, of looking upon hardships and privations as matters-of-course in a seaman's life.

On the outbreak of the Seven Years' War, Cook's chance came to him. He entered the royal navy, and by his talents attracted the notice of his captain, and was appointed master of the *Mercury*. In this capacity he was sent to the St. Lawrence to prepare for Wolfe's expedition to Quebec, by taking soundings of the river and laying down a chart. So well was this work done that our fleet sailed up to Quebec, with Wolfe's army on board, without a single mishap. This service to his country was not forgotten ; and when it was resolved to send an exploring expedition to the Southern Ocean, James Cook was placed in command.

Captain Cook set sail, in 1768, in the *Endeavour*, a collier of 370 tons—a stout, strong ship, designed for safety in all weathers rather than speed. Her crew consisted of 85 men, and with them embarked a celebrated naturalist, named Banks, and a draughtsman to sketch the various objects of interest. Cook's voyage of discovery really began from Tahiti, or Otaheite, an island near the centre of the Pacific, already visited by Captain Wallis, and described by him and others as an earthly Paradise. Tahiti turned out to be the chief island of a small archipelago, which Cook called the Society Islands.

From hence the explorer set sail for New Zealand, which had been discovered in 1642 by Tasman, a Dutchman, who named it after one of the provinces in his native country ; yet neither he, nor any one since his time, had landed there. It was first explored by

Captain Cook, who spent six months in mapping out its coasts, and in gaining some knowledge of the interior and its inhabitants, who called themselves *Maoris*. The country, he found, consists of two large islands ; the strait between them still recalls the name of the explorer. The natives proved to be a warlike race of cannibals, and Cook found it necessary in his dealings with them to correct their thievish practices and hostile demeanour by firing small shot at the culprits. Sometimes even severer measures were adopted.

The great explorer next sailed for Australia, then almost an unknown land. It is true a Spanish captain, named Torres, had as early as 1606 sailed through the strait that still bears his name, and sighted Cape York, and Tasman, in 1642, had discovered the island now called Tasmania, although somehow he missed the mainland itself. Other Dutch navigators also had surveyed parts of the north and west coasts, and at the time of Cook's visit the country was called New Holland. No part of it, however, was ever colonised by the Dutch.

Cook was the first to visit the East Coast, which he explored with great care. The first point of Australia seen by his look-out man was Cape Howe, in the south-east corner of the country. A few days later the *Endeavour* anchored in Botany Bay, which owes its name to the great variety of new plants that delighted the eyes of the naturalist of the expedition. After sailing 1,300 miles without meeting with any accident, the *Endeavour* suddenly struck on a part of the Barrier Reef, whose existence at that time was unknown. A great hole was knocked in the vessel. A sail, with a quantity of wool and oakum lightly stitched to it, was placed beneath the ship



Specimen of tattooing.
Maori king with his green stone
club.

Two girls greeting

Maori woman.
An old Maori chief.

MAORIS.

by ropes, when the oakum and wool were drawn in by the suction of the leak, and served in some measure to plug it. The ship was at length got off the rock, brought to land and beached for repairs, at a spot where now stands Cooktown. "In all the joy of our unexpected deliverance, we had not forgot that for some time there was nothing but a lock of wool between us and destruction." The captain afterwards completed the survey of the east coast, gave the name of New South Wales to the country, and took possession in the name of King George.

The services of Captain Cook were acknowledged, on his return to England, in the way that gallant seamen love best; for within a few months he was sent forth on another perilous voyage. The object of this new expedition was to complete the exploration of the Southern Hemisphere, and in particular to ascertain if there was a Southern Continent, as had long been thought, south of a line drawn between Cape Howe and the Cape of Good Hope. On this service Cook was engaged for three years and three months, sailing, it is computed, twenty thousand leagues. It was really a magnificent piece of work done in the face of tremendous difficulties with iron resolution. Cook made Tahiti his winter-quarters and place of refreshment for his crew; and from that earthly paradise he set out again and again to push his discoveries in the Southern Ocean. Indeed, he did not relax his efforts until he had completed the whole circle of the Southern Hemisphere and proved that if a southern continent exists it is within the Antarctic Circle and the perpetual abode of ice and snow. In the course of his voyage he discovered the New Hebrides and many other groups of small islands.

This voyage is remarkable for the first successful treatment of scurvy. In his first voyage Captain Cook had lost twenty-three of his men, that is, one in four, from that terrible scourge. This set him thinking, and so successful was he in the preparations for his second voyage round the world that, although it lasted more than three years, he only lost four men and not one of them from scurvy. Captain Cook himself fell ill on the voyage, and for want of something better "a dog was killed to make soup for him." This fact is sufficient to bring home to us the terrible hardships those old mariners had to put up with, but so inured was our hero that, in his own Journal, he passes them all over as not worthy of mention.

There still remained the task of exploring the Northern Pacific and tracing out the coasts of America north of California. It was also thought that the old problem of a north-west passage might be solved by attacking it from Behring Strait. The prospect of doing what so many navigators had failed to accomplish, fired the mind of our great explorer, and set him off on a third voyage of discovery. Having visited New Zealand and the Friendly Islands, he came again to Tahiti, where he landed horses, cows, and goats, sent over by the king for the benefit of the islanders. On sailing from thence, Cook discovered a new archipelago to which he gave the name of Sandwich.

Our explorer then pursued his voyage to Behring Sea and Strait, examined the coast on either side, and advanced into the Arctic Ocean until his passage was blocked by impenetrable ice. Returning to the Sandwich Islands, he cast anchor in the harbour of Hawaii. The

natives received him courteously, and for some weeks they remained on friendly terms with the strangers. Then a dispute arose on account of the cutter of the *Discovery* having been stolen by the natives, and in the brawl which ensued, Captain Cook was mortally wounded (1779). Such was the miserable end of a brilliant career, and we are sorry to add, it was due to Cook's own ungovernable temper. It cannot, however, detract from the splendour of his life's work. During his time he had added more geographical information to the sum of human knowledge than any man before or since. He had also taken the first important step in adding a whole continent to the British Empire, thus in great measure redressing the loss of our chief colonies in the New World by opening the door of a Newer World for us to enter and occupy.

V. INDUSTRIAL INVENTIONS AND NATIONAL PROGRESS

WHEN the Treaty of Versailles was signed, acknowledging the independence of the United States, it was widely thought that England was ruined, and that she had fallen from her proud place among the nations never to rise again. The real greatness of a nation is never so well seen as in her conduct after defeat and disaster. In seven years from the loss of the American colonies, the Prime Minister was able to say, "The country at this moment is in a situation of prosperity far greater than in the most flourishing period before the last war." In 1790 the export of British manufactured goods exceeded by more than £3,000,000 the

average of the six prosperous years that preceded the American war, whilst the number of ships and sailors had proportionately increased. The world was startled to find that Great Britain, instead of being ruined by her loss, was fast becoming stronger and greater than ever.

This marvellous recovery was due not only to the enterprising character of our countrymen, but to the vast resources of our country in its stores of coal and iron, and to a series of remarkable inventions. Indeed, the ten years that followed the Peace of Versailles (1783-93) saw a display of industrial activity such as the world had never witnessed before.

To the end of the Seven Years' War England had continued to be in the main an agricultural and commercial country, but about that time several inventions gave a great impetus to the cotton manufacture, which soon communicated itself to the other textile industries—linen, woollen, and silk. All cotton yarn had previously been spun in single threads, and although the industry was pursued in countless cottages and farmhouses over England, the supply of cotton yarn continued much below the demand, and much below the quantity which the weavers could manufacture, especially since the invention of the fly-shuttle in 1738. Increased attention, therefore, was given to spinning; and in 1764, Hargreaves designed the "spinning-jenny," which enabled one wheel to spin several threads at once. Five years later a barber, named Arkwright, took out a patent for a machine which spun the threads by passing them between pairs of rollers rotating in opposite directions. And in 1776, Crompton brought out a machine,

called the mule, because it combined the advantages of both the rolling-machine and the spinning-jenny.

There were many other clever contrivances connected with the manufacture of cotton. The application of chlorine to the process of bleaching shortened that work from many weeks to a few hours. The invention of cylinder-printing for producing patterns on calico quickened the process a hundred-fold. About the same time Cartwright, a clergyman, and Horrocks, a Lancashire weaver, separately designed a loom that would act by machinery, thus enabling the weaver to keep pace with the spinner. At first water-power was largely employed in the manufacture, but about 1790 steam began to supplant all other agents for driving machinery. The extraordinary change that was wrought by these inventions is seen in the fact that the spinner who formerly spun but one thread at a time was now able to superintend the working of 2,200 spindles.

The immense extension of the cotton manufacture, though the most remarkable, is not the only extraordinary feature in the industrial history of England in the latter half of the 18th century. To this period also belongs the rise of the great English manufacture of earthenware. The founder of this great industry was Josiah Wedgwood, the son of a poor potter. When Josiah began to work at the potter's wheel, the earthenware chiefly made in England was of the coarsest kind. Most of even the commoner sort in use was imported from abroad, principally from Delft, in Holland. Wedgwood set his wits to work to produce a new kind of ware that should rival the porcelain of the Chinese.

About 1760 he discovered their secret, and so rapid was his success that at the end of twenty-five years there were no less than 15,000 persons employed in the potteries of Staffordshire. Not only did his ware almost monopolize the markets of England, but before the end of the century more than one-half of the quantity manufactured was exported.

The iron manufacture also began in this period its prosperous career. It had been long known how rich our island was in iron; but it was thought that it could only be smelted by charcoal, which was necessarily expensive. As soon as it was discovered how to use pit-coal for the purpose, the quantity of iron manufactured advanced by "leaps and bounds." Great iron works were established at Carron, near Stirling, Birmingham, Sheffield, and a host of other towns now sprang into importance. As soon as steam became the great motive power, the seats of manufacturing industry were rarely far from some coal-field. Lancashire, which obtained the lead in the cotton manufacture, from its abundant water-power and convenient port for trade with America, retained the lead, when steam began its reign, on account of its rich coal-fields.

The extraordinary progress made in these various industries would have been impossible unless coal could have been cheaply conveyed from the coal-pits to the seats of manufacture. There were in those days no railways. Their place was supplied, in respect to the carriage of goods, by a net-work of canals which began to be formed in 1760. The first canal was constructed between Manchester and the coal-mines at Worsley, at the expense of the Duke of Bridgewater, by the

genius of the great engineer, Brindley, who astonished his countrymen by carrying his canal at a height of thirty-nine feet over the river Irwell. By 1790 was completed the chain of canals which connected the four great ports of London, Bristol, Liverpool, and Hull ; and in the same year the canal was opened which connected the Forth and the Clyde.

Stationary steam-engines were in use long before the locomotive appeared, but prior to 1764, when James Watt began his wonderful improvements, it was only useful for pumping water from mines. By the genius of Watt the steam-engine was quite transformed and made the most powerful and obedient servant of man, capable of being used in an endless variety of ways. The steam-engine, thus improved, together with the mule and the power-loom, quite revolutionised British industry, and restored to our country the commanding position it occupied before the revolt of the American colonies.

The first effect of these inventions was everywhere disastrous to the hand-workers, many of whom were thrown out of employment with the introduction of each machine. The ultimate effect was largely to increase the amount of employment, as usually happens when the production is much cheapened, but, of course, the hungry workers only knew that the bread was taken out of their mouths by the new machines, and therefore they regarded the inventors—poor men for the most part like themselves—as the enemies of their fellow-workers. Their resentment often blazed forth into open violence ; machines were smashed, and mills wrecked. Baulked in one place, the inventors set up their machines

in another, and with the lapse of time the workers adapted themselves to the new conditions of labour.

Whatever may have been the effect of the new machines on the happiness and well-being of the work-people, it is certain that the country at large gained immensely in wealth, enabling it both to maintain a much larger population than before, and to support the vast expenditure of the great French war, which began in 1793, and ended only with the victory at Waterloo in 1815. That England came triumphantly out of that great war was due largely, if not mainly, to the cotton-mill and the steam-engine, both so vastly improved by the late inventions, and both capable of being worked to the greatest advantage in this country on account of the abundance of its coal and iron.

CHAPTER IX

England's great Trial and Triumph

OUR kingdom is now (1793) on the eve of a mighty trial of strength and endurance, in which she gives proof of the magnitude of her resources and the prowess of her sons. England might perhaps have held aloof from the strife which turned all Europe into a vast battle-field ; she might, perhaps, have lived in inglorious security in her island-home, and witnessed less favoured nations trampled beneath the conqueror's heel ; but she nobly chose to stand forth and take the lion's share in the war against tyranny and ambition.

The leading features of this great war with France were the extraordinary victories of the French over the great military nations of the continent, and the splendid triumphs of the British over the fleets of its chief maritime states, by which our country was left the undisputed mistress of the seas.

Many desirable possessions in different quarters of the world were, in consequence of our sea power, added to our ever-growing Empire. Even the marked growth of our Indian Empire at this period was indirectly the result of that maritime supremacy ; for the command of the seas left us free to carry on the contest with the Indian princes without being handicapped by foreign intervention.

I. "LIBERTY, EQUALITY, AND FRATERNITY"

THESE words commonly appear on the public buildings of France. They express the ideas which inspired the minds of the French in the great Revolution, which broke out in 1789, and which was the outcome of centuries of unjust government. In England the old social system had gradually undergone a change, and the powers of the monarchy had been brought within due limits. But in France all the old abuses still flourished. The sovereign still claimed absolute authority, and society was still divided into the privileged classes and the unprivileged. No Frenchman who was not of noble birth could rise to high office in the state, the church, or the army. The chief tax paid at this date was the land-tax, but the nobles and clergy, who owned more than half the land in France, were exempt from payment. Crowds of courtiers, worthless and dissolute men, hung about the palace and lived in the most extravagant style chiefly at the public expense. It is not surprising, therefore, that the people, ground down with taxes to pay for all this vice and luxury, became at last almost mad with misery and despair, and, like working bees, banded together to kill the drones, or expel them from the hive.

At first, the Revolution in France was looked upon with approbation by Englishmen, who valued their own freedom, who had won for themselves Constitutional Government, who had secured equality of treatment in a court of justice for people of all classes, and who now desired to see their fellow-men in the enjoyment of similar blessings. The Revolution which turned France

into a Republic was, accordingly, hailed by a large proportion of Englishmen as the means of securing these advantages, of abolishing privilege, and opening up a career to men of talent, irrespective of birth and social rank. They were heartily in sympathy with the revolutionary motto: "Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity."

A change, however, was soon wrought in the minds of sober Englishmen. By the mad outrages committed by the Revolutionists, and their unsparing use of the guillotine, which shore off the heads of king, queen, and nobles indiscriminately, they not only forfeited the sympathy of England, but banded all Europe against them as the enemies of the human race. The whole French nation uprose in arms, as one man, and defied the armies of Europe, holding their ground with a gallantry, skill, and resolution, which created universal astonishment and no small admiration. And not only did they hold France against all comers, but even extended its boundaries to the Rhine, and annexed the Austrian Netherlands, now known as Belgium. Moreover, it soon became evident that a great military genius had arisen among them. This was Napoleon Bonaparte, who became the idol of France, and the scourge of Europe.

II. A TRIPLE TRIUMPH

Whilst the French soldiers were carrying all before them on land, the English sailors were equally successful on the seas. On June 1st, 1794, a day known as "the glorious first of June," Lord Howe inflicted a crushing

defeat on the French fleet off Brest. It had ventured out of harbour to bring in some corn ships seen in the offing from America. The corn ships made good their entry ; but of the twenty-six French ships of the line, seven were taken and two sunk. Next year, France being joined by Spain and Holland, our supremacy on the seas became doubtful. It is a ground of legitimate pride that our navy triumphed over the formidable combination of these three maritime powers, and saved England from invasion.

It was the design of the French to make a descent upon Ireland, where they were sure of a warm welcome from the Catholic Irish, who still suffered from many disabilities. The French ordered the Dutch fleet to join their own at Brest, to escort a strong body of troops to Ireland and cover their landing. But this design was defeated by the destruction of the Dutch fleet by Admiral Duncan, off Camperdown.

This great seaman, created Earl of Camperdown in reward of his victory, deserves an honourable place in the annals of the British navy. "He is heart of oak, every inch of him," wrote one of his tars. With two ships he blockaded the Dutch fleet in the Texel, making signals to an imaginary British fleet in the offing. Having given his ships time to collect, he withdrew and waited for the enemy. At daybreak on 11th October, 1797, the Dutch fleet appeared close inshore off Camperdown. A strong wind was blowing on to the shore, rendering it hazardous for the British to attack. But Duncan resolved on facing the peril rather than let his enemy escape. Feeling his responsibility and the risks he was going to encounter, he called all his officers on

deck, and in their presence " prostrated himself in prayer before the God of hosts, committing himself and them, with the cause they maintained, to His sovereign protection."

Then he gave the signal for battle. One of the captains, named Inglis, a Scotsman, seems not to have mastered the signal-book. Finding himself on the eve of battle more puzzled than enlightened by it, he dashed it on the deck, saying in broad Scotch, "Up wi' the hel-lem, and gang into the middle o't." No words could better describe the temper and spirit that animated the whole fleet, as it bore down in two hastily-formed columns on the enemy's line. Asked by an officer how many ships he was going to engage, the admiral replied : "Really, sir, I cannot ascertain ; but when we have taken them we will count them."

The result of the battle was thus summarised by a seaman of the admiral's flag-ship, the *Venerable* : "The battle lasted two hours, when we killed one-half and took the other half. As to the particulars, I can't tell you them just now. For my part I minded nothing but my gun, except when we gave shouts of victory as the enemy's ships struck to us." In those words, "I minded nothing but my gun," we have one of the secrets of success. Each man did the duty that fell to him, regardless of aught else. It is but fair to remark that the Dutch had only eleven ships to our sixteen, and that they fought with a stubborn courage worthy of their old renown ; not a ship struck its colours until riddled with shot into an utter wreck.

The Spaniards fared no better. Their fleet had already, that same year, been roughly handled by Admiral Jervis

off Cape St. Vincent. It was in this battle that Nelson first gave proof of his extraordinary powers. At the critical moment of the battle, Commodore Nelson, on board the *Captain*, suddenly altered the course of his ship, on his own responsibility, so as to checkmate a move just made by the Spanish admiral with the view of uniting the two divisions of his fleet. His masterly response to the Spaniard's move not only prevented the desired junction, but threw the van of the enemy into such confusion that, in spite of their superior numbers,—they had twenty-seven to our fifteen—four of their ships fell to the English, two of them being boarded by Nelson himself. Nelson used to say, "The object of a sea-officer is to embrace the happy moment." This is what he did so successfully in the battle off St. Vincent.

Thus within three years three of the chief maritime powers of Europe had tried conclusions with a British fleet and all three had suffered a disastrous defeat. This triple triumph of our navy was eclipsed ere long by the still greater triumphs which fell to the genius, seamanship and daring of our Nelson.

III. NELSON AND THE NILE

NELSON seems to have been sent into the world to thwart the ambitious designs of Napoleon, though one fought only on land and the other at sea. Nelson's name only appears in our annals between 1793 and 1805, but his career lasted long enough for the fulfilment of his mission, which was to sweep the French warships from the sea, and to save his country from invasion. Such alarm had the French inspired by the triumphant march

of their armies over Europe, and by their unquenchable thirst for military glory, that Nelson only expressed the general feeling of Europe when he said, "*Down, down with the French*, ought to be posted up in the council-room of every country in the world."

It was in the spirit of these words our Nelson acted through the war. Though gifted with an heroic soul, he had but a feeble frame, which certainly was not cast in an heroic mould. We see the indomitable spirit of the man in the way he bore himself after that one defeat of his at Teneriffe, where he lost an arm. On returning to his ship, he would not allow himself to be slung on deck. "I've got one arm and two legs left," he said, "and I'll get up myself." And so he did, climbing up, it is said, by a single rope. His great aim in battle was always to get as close as possible to the enemy. Not defeat, but destruction was his aim. However great the victory, he was never satisfied if it might have been greater. He could not say, like another admiral, "We have done very well and must be contented," if something more might have been done.

Of his many characteristic sayings there is none which gives such a clear glimpse of the kind of man he was as the following lines, which he penned in a letter home after an action with the French, in which only two ships had been taken, and in which he took part only as captain: "I wish to be an Admiral and in command of the English fleet. I should very soon either do much or be ruined. My disposition cannot bear tame and slow measures. Sure I am had I commanded in that battle, that either the whole French

fleet would have graced my triumph, or I should have been in a confounded scrape." There is Nelson's portrait drawn by himself, and the likeness is certainly striking.

Nelson first drew the eyes of the whole world upon himself by his famous victory of the Nile. He had been sent, in command of a squadron of thirteen sail-of-the-line, in pursuit of a French fleet that had sailed from Toulon in charge of a flotilla of 400 transports, on which were crowded 30,000 troops under Napoleon Bonaparte. "You may be assured," writes Nelson, "I will fight them the moment I can reach, be they at anchor or under sail." The chase began on June 7th, 1798, it ended only upon August 1st in the Battle of the Nile. All that time not a single sail of the enemy met the eager eyes of our Nelson. The French fleet had simply vanished, and Nelson was left in the dark as to its destination. Nor had he any frigates to scour the seas and bring him intelligence of the enemy's movements. In those days the fast-sailing frigates were to the ships-of-the-line what the swift cruisers of to-day are to the big battleships. They were the eyes of the fleet, and could be sent far and wide to watch the enemy and bring back news.

As it was, Nelson could only guess that the conquest of Egypt was Napoleon's object. He therefore crowded all sail for Alexandria. But he outran his prey and reached Alexandria to find the harbour empty. In a fever of anxiety lest the French fleet should escape him, Nelson flew back to Sicily, only to learn that the enemy was certainly gone east. Had he waited at Alexandria, he would have seen the top-

sails of the French fleet within twelve hours. Before Nelson could double back to Alexandria, the French troops were landed, and the French men-of-war were anchored in Aboukir Bay, and so placed, it was thought, as to insure their safety.

Imagine thirteen great battle-ships drawn up in a single line parallel with the shore, but on account of the shallow water three miles from it. The head-ship was anchored so close to an island which stands at the western entrance to the Bay that no one in the French fleet imagined that there was room for a ship to pass between them. But, as Nelson said, "Where a French ship can swing, an English ship can either sail or anchor." Each ship in the French fleet was bound by a great cable to its neighbour, the whole line forming a thread of beads, only each bead was a battle-ship. In the centre came the *Orient*, the French flag-ship, carrying 120 guns, the largest ship afloat.

Ship for ship, the French had a decided advantage in the number and size of their guns. Nelson, however, took care not to engage the whole line, but brought the whole weight of his guns to bear upon a part only. The French admiral had imagined himself open to attack only from the sea. In this he was mistaken. Nelson's leading ship, carefully sounding, found that she could pass between the French van and the island, and so make her way inside the French line. Her example was followed by the four next ships, all of which placed themselves where they were least expected. Then came Nelson's flag-ship, the *Vanguard*, which took the outer side. The next four ships, of course, did the same. Thus, the French van and centre were caught between

two fires, whilst the rear ships, being at anchor to leeward, were unable to come to the rescue of their distressed sisters.

It was already dusk when the first broadside was fired. Not a moment had been lost in getting into action. Three of Nelson's ships were miles off when the battle began. It was so dark when the *Culloden* arrived, that it struck on a shoal, and there lay useless right through the battle. The chagrin of the crew may be easily imagined. The other two laggards reached the scene of action at an opportune moment, when the *Bellerophon* was retiring maimed and disabled after a combat of more than an hour with the *Orient*, the giant of the fleet. The two new-comers took her place, and brought their guns to play upon the victor.

At the end of an hour a fire was observed on the poop of the *Orient*. The nearest English ships brought their guns and musketry to bear upon the burning spot, and made the task of extinguishing it hopeless. The flames rapidly spread, and in less than an hour reached the powder-magazine, when a terrific explosion shattered the great vessel into fragments, and hurled the brave seamen into the air. Ten minutes of death-like stillness passed before a gun dared to break the awful pause. In the meantime, Nelson, with a bandage round his head, and bleeding from a blow by a flying piece of iron, was directing his boats in the humane endeavour to save the unfortunate French sailors that had been blown into the sea.

At dawn it was found that the leading six ships of the French had struck their colours. The *Orient* having blown up, there were six survivors. Of these three

were ashore and helpless, one was run aground and set on fire by the crew, the two other ships escaped. Only one British ship was in condition to give chase. The crews were so worn out with their night's work that "as soon as the men," says Captain Miller of the *Theseus*, "had hove our sheet anchor up they dropped under the capstan bars, and were asleep in a moment in every sort of posture." Nelson took the earliest opportunity of returning thanks to Almighty God for this great victory :

"VANGUARD, 2nd August, 1798.

"Almighty God having blessed His Majesty's arms with victory, the Admiral intends returning Public Thanksgiving for the same at two o'clock this day ; and he recommends every ship doing the same as soon as convenient.

"HORATIO NELSON."

This great victory had not come in time to prevent the landing of the French troops under Bonaparte at Alexandria, but it had the effect of cooping up in Egypt the best general and the best army the French possessed. Napoleon regarded Egypt as the half-way house to India. Having conquered Egypt, he had hoped to go on to India and expel the English, but the loss of the French fleet ruined his plan by cutting off all communication with France. It had also this important result, the successful blockade of the harbour of Valetta, and the surrender of the French garrison, by which the island-fortress of Malta became an English possession, and from its central situation the best naval station in the Mediterranean.

IV. NELSON AND TRAFALGAR

NAPOLEON hastened back from Egypt to France at the first opportunity, and being raised to supreme power took measures for building a strong fleet. "Either our Government must destroy the English monarchy," wrote Bonaparte about this time, "or must expect itself to be destroyed by the corruption and intrigue of these active islanders." By "corruption," he refers to the subsidies paid by us to foreign Governments to help them to carry on the war with France. Bonaparte's dearest wish was to strike at England herself, as the heart of the league formed again and again, in the course of the long war, against his country. For this purpose, in 1803, he began to collect an immense flotilla of flat-bottomed boats at Boulogne, and a large army drilled to embark in the shortest possible time, with the avowed object of invading England. All England rose in arms to receive the invader. No fewer than 300,000 volunteers enrolled themselves in different corps. Our cruisers kept watch in the Channel, and on the alert before Brest and Toulon, to prevent surprise.

Napoleon knew that his only chance of getting his army across "the silver streak" was to secure command of the Channel for at least a few hours. He, accordingly, got Spain to join him, and devised a scheme for the union of all the French and Spanish men-of-war and their sudden appearance in the Channel. The first thing was to get Nelson and his fleet as far away as possible. He had long been blockading the harbour of Toulon, and with such assiduity did he cling to his post that when he next set foot on shore it was the first time for

two years. But at last, Villeneuve, who was in command of the Toulon fleet, got out of harbour without being seen, slipped along the coast of Spain, joined a Spanish fleet at Cadiz, and made for the West Indies.

Away went Nelson in swift pursuit. "Yesterday," he said, "the French fleet seemed in high feather, and as fine as paint could make them. Our weather-beaten ships, I have no fear, will make their sides like a plum-pudding." But he had first to catch them, and this he found no easy task. Before Nelson had reached the West Indies, Villeneuve had doubled back. Instead, however, of sailing direct for the English Channel, he made for Ferrol, where a Spanish squadron was waiting to join him. His next intention was to pick up a French squadron at Rochefort. But the frigate sent with dispatches for the Commander, fell in with an English frigate, which captured her and her dispatches, and thus spoiled the whole scheme. The result of this mischance was that Villeneuve gave up all hope of carrying out the enterprise, and set sail for Cadiz.

This step ruined Napoleon's plan. He immediately broke up his camp at Boulogne, and marched against Austria. The danger of invasion was therefore removed, but it still remained to destroy the allied fleet at Cadiz. Nelson, who had returned in hot pursuit from the West Indies, was now commissioned to do the work of destruction. That work was achieved off Cape Trafalgar.

The battle of Trafalgar, fought on the 21st October, 1805, is one of the most splendid and gigantic struggles in the annals of naval warfare. The allies mustered thirty-three battle-ships, the British twenty-seven. Nelson arranged the order of battle with his captains

some days previously. He marshalled his ships on the fateful day in two columns, about a mile apart, placing himself at the head of one column in the *Victory*, whilst Admiral Collingwood in the *Royal Sovereign* took the lead of the other. The allies, under the command of Admiral Villeneuve, received the attack with their ships arranged in an irregular line, stretching from north to south, the two English columns bearing down on them at right angles to their line. Collingwood broke through the line near the centre and engaged the ships forming the rear to the south. Nelson directed his column a few ships north of their centre, and so disposed his forces as to leave ten or a dozen of the enemy, forming the van, to the north, unengaged. By the time these ships tacked so as to come into action, the day was decided, the allied ships in the centre and rear having had to bear the whole brunt of the English attack. So decisive was the defeat of the allies that no less than eighteen ships fell a prey to the British; the French flag-ship with Admiral Villeneuve, on board, being among the captured vessels.

Having sketched out the general plan of attack and its results, let us follow in greater detail the fortunes of the victor. After making all arrangements for the approaching fight, Nelson, with a strong presentiment of death that day, went down into his cabin to pray. The words of his prayer, written on his knees in his private diary, the last he ever penned, ran thus:—

“ May the great God, whom I worship, grant to my country, and for the benefit of Europe in general, a great and glorious victory; and may no misconduct in any one tarnish it; and may humanity after victory be the predominant feature in the British fleet. For

myself, individually, I commit my life to Him who made me, and may His blessing light upon my endeavours for serving my country faithfully. To Him I resign myself and the just cause which is entrusted to me to defend. Amen, Amen, Amen."

Then our hero appeared on deck ready for anything that might befall him. Just before going into action he issued the famous signal, "England expects that every man will do his duty." As by a common impulse the ships of all the nations engaged now hoisted their colours, and the admirals their flags. As the *Victory* at the head of the second column advanced, she became the target of all the ships in the enemy's centre. For forty minutes she had to endure the hail of shot in silence, her speed continually decreasing as one sail after another was stripped from the yards. Despite of her injuries the *Victory* continued to forge ahead, and at last her bows crossed the wake of the vessel which carried Admiral Villeneuve's flag, by whose stern she passed within thirty feet. Now spoke the double-shotted guns of the *Victory*, as they passed in succession the enemy's ship, their shots raking the vessel from stern to stem. Twenty guns were at once dismounted and a hundred men laid low.

The *Victory*, passing on, brought up alongside the *Redoutable*. The rigging of the two ships got entangled, so that they lay side by side with their guns almost mouth to mouth. Both ships were soon on fire. The flames were, however, soon extinguished, but not the fury of battle. Marksmen in the rigging of the French ship shot down at the officers and men on the deck of the *Victory*. The figure of a one-armed officer, with epaulettes on his shoulders and stars upon his breast,

attracted the eye of one of these marksmen. The man fired, and the ball shot through epaulette and shoulder, and lodged in the spine. The wounded Nelson fell into Captain Hardy's hands, saying, "They have done for me at last." He was carried to the cockpit with his handkerchief over his face and breast, so that the crew might not become discouraged by observing his fate. The hero lived long enough to know that the victory that day was one of the most glorious on record. Whilst dying he was repeatedly heard to say, "Thank God, I have done my duty." The last words audible were, "God and my country."

Nelson's victory gave England the undisputed sovereignty of the seas, freed her from all fear of invasion, ensured the safety of the seas to her merchant ships, and threw a strong shield over all her colonial possessions. When Nelson died, his work was done, his mission ended; but yet he has not ceased to be a source of living power. "Wherever danger has to be faced or duty to be done, at cost to self, men will draw inspiration from the name and deeds of Nelson."

V. MAKING BRITISH RULE SUPREME IN INDIA

WHILST Nelson was maintaining the sovereignty of England on the seas, Marquess Wellesley was raising the British flag aloft in India. He held office as Governor-General of India between 1798 and 1805, the years of Nelson's victories of the Nile and Trafalgar. The former victory relieved Wellesley from all fear of a French invasion of India; for the destruction of the French fleet in Aboukir Bay left Napoleon's army

stranded in Egypt, cut off from their base of supplies in France. Wellesley's hands were thus left free to deal with the native princes unaided by the troops of any foreign power.

Marquess Wellesley arrived in India at a most critical moment, the time having arrived when the British must either rule or be ruled, for the Mogul Empire was completely broken up. Either the Mahratta princes or the British must give the law in India, and Wellesley was resolved that the paramount power should fall to the British.

His first aim was to destroy all French influence. His watchword, like Nelson's, was "Down with the French." Many of the Indian princes had French soldiers in their pay, by whom their armies were highly trained. And first the Marquess prevailed upon our ally, the Nizam of the Deccan, to dismiss his French officers, who were packed off to England by the next ship. The native Sepoys, numbering 14,000, whom they had drilled, readily took service under English officers on full payment of arrears due to them. From that hour the Nizam was our dependent ally, absolute in his own state, but controlled by our representative at his court in all matters relating to other states. Nearly two-fifths of India is still under the rule of native princes, who hold their sovereignty on the same terms as the Nizam.

Marquess Wellesley's next enterprise ended in war with Tippoo Sultan of Mysore, son and successor of the famous Hyder Ali. The war with Tippoo was brought to a speedy close by the storming of his capital, Seringapatam, and his own death when fighting in the breach. The greater part of Mysore was partitioned

between the British and their ally, the Nizam. The vacant throne was filled by a young prince of the ancient dynasty of Mysore, who ruled henceforth under British protection and guidance. We next find the Governor-General arranging terms with the Nabob of Oudh, by which the latter cedes the territory called the Doab, between the Ganges and the Jumna, and accepts the same position as the Nizam.

Whilst these conquests and arrangements were being made, the Mahratta princes were engaged in warfare between themselves. This gave the Marquess the opportunity he sought. He induced the prince of Poona to barter his independence for security by placing himself under British protection, and he then proceeded to make war on the other Mahratta chiefs, Holkar and Scindia. He entrusted the conduct of the war to General Lake, and to his younger brother, Arthur Wellesley, the future Duke of Wellington, of whom the former was left to deal with Holkar, the latter with Scindia.

The most famous of the battles fought in this war was that of Assaye, Wellesley's first great victory. Wellesley found himself, with a force of 5,000 men and 20 guns, in presence of 40,000 men and 250 guns admirably directed by French artillerymen. The English General took advantage of the junction of two rivers near Assaye, to place his little army in the angle thus formed, so as to be open to attack only in front. But to get into this position it was necessary to cross one of the rivers, and his guide assured him there was no ford by which the passage could be made. Going forward to reconnoitre and see for himself, General

Wellesley observed that two villages stood facing each other on opposite banks of the river.

"I immediately said to myself," he tells us, "that men could not have built two villages facing one another on opposite sides of a stream without some means of passing from one to the other. And I was right. I found a passage, crossed my army over, and found my force just enough to fill the space between that river and another stream, so that both my flanks were secure. And there I fought and won the battle, the bloodiest for the numbers that I ever saw." It has been said that "all the fighting that had hitherto taken place in India was child's play in comparison with that at Assaye." However this may be, Assaye was a terrible battle, in which more than a fourth of the victors were wounded or killed. It did more, perhaps, than any previous battle to impress the natives with the dauntless courage of the men from across the seas who were fast making themselves masters of India.

General Lake soon afterwards brought Holkar to his knees. Holkar had begun hostilities by killing three English officers attached to his army, because they were patriotic enough to declare that whilst ready to fight for Holkar against any other people, they would not bear arms against their own countrymen. After a war, chequered with victory and defeat, Holkar was driven through the north-west provinces and across the Sutlej, till at length he was compelled to surrender, as he said, "his whole kingdom on his saddle bow" (1805).

Marquess Wellesley's work in India was now done. He had carried out his scheme of making the British power paramount in India; of taking the sea-coasts

and adjoining territory under the direct rule of the Company, so as to cut off the native princes from all communication with foreign powers ; and of reducing the native princes to a state of dependence in respect of their relations to other states, whilst leaving them free to govern their own people according to their own laws and customs. He not only made England for his time the paramount power, but by his system of protected states did much to give that power a permanent character. The memory of Marquess Wellesley ought to be revered by his fellow-countrymen, for he was undoubtedly one of the great architects of the British Empire.

VI. WELLINGTON AND HIS WORK

IF we owe the extension of our Empire in no small measure to the Marquess Wellesley, we owe its defence at a most critical period of our history to the military skill, the indomitable will, and the rare devotion to duty of his younger, but still more famous brother, the Duke of Wellington. This "hero of a hundred fights" gained his first great victory, as we have seen, at Assaye in India. The great scene of his hard-fought sieges and battles, his retreats and his defensive tactics, his doubtful defeats and decisive victories, was the Peninsula of Portugal and Spain, and on this account the war in which he was engaged, between 1808 and 1814, is called the *Peninsular War*.

The amazing successes of Napoleon on the Continent caused him to dream of Europe as an empire, with Napoleon as its emperor, and Paris as its capital.

But there was one nation near his own doors that he had failed to dominate. The proud position in which England stood at that time is thus sketched in the "History of the English People":—

"England was at once the carrier of European commerce and the workshop of European manufactures. While her mines, her looms, her steam-engines, were giving her almost a monopoly of industrial production, her merchant-ships sufficed not only to spread her own products through the world, but to carry to every part of it the products of other countries. . . . All rivals save one (United States) had in fact been swept from the sea; the carrying trade of France and Holland alike had been transferred to the British flag, and the conquest of their wealthier settlements had thrown into British hands the whole colonial trade of the world."

Napoleon finding his arm too short to reach across the Channel, endeavoured to humble the pride and power of England by striking at her commerce. He, accordingly, issued a decree (1806) forbidding France and all continental nations to trade with the British Isles. As Portugal refused to obey this decree, Napoleon sent an army to occupy the country. And as Portugal had long been our ally, and her ports always open to our ships of war, we were resolved to come to her rescue. It was thus in the interests of our sea power and commerce, and in a spirit of loyalty to our staunch ally, that we began the Peninsular War. It was persevered in for years as the most effectual way of draining the life blood of France, and paralysing the efforts of Napoleon to enslave Europe.

Bonaparte well knew how important it was to turn the English out of Portugal. Writing to Marshal Soult, he said: "You are to advance on the English,

pursue them without ceasing, beat them and fling them into the sea. The English alone are formidable—they alone." And we find in a letter written by Wellington, in 1811, that he was equally well aware how vital to our interests it was that we should not be driven out. "If we cannot persevere in carrying on the contest in the Peninsula, or elsewhere on the Continent, we must prepare to make one of our own islands the seat of war. I am equally certain that if Bonaparte cannot root us out of the Peninsula he must give us such a peace as we ought to accept."

In the light of these sayings we see the work that Wellington had to do, and well, we know, he did it. In the course of his seven campaigns in the Peninsula, Wellington found the tide of success ebb and flow. Sometimes he was able to advance and drive the enemy before him, sometimes he was compelled to retreat and stand on the defensive. But whether advancing or retiring he suffered no disaster, he lost no pitched battle. Much of Wellington's success was due to the solidity and steady discipline of his troops, still more perhaps to his military skill and personal character. By patience and perseverance, by careful attention to details, by never throwing away a chance, by never sparing himself, by making "duty" his watchword; by such plain solid virtues, rather than by the rare and happy gifts of genius and good fortune, our Wellington fought and won. "Wellington dazzled no one," says a French writer, "but he beat us."

We have a splendid example of his foresight, skill, and caution in the preparations he made for the defence of Lisbon, the heart of Portugal, whose loss would have

been fatal. Lisbon lies at the extremity of a peninsula formed by the Tagus and the sea. Across this he drew three lines of defence, called the *Lines of Torres Vedras*, and mounted thereon 150 guns. The barrier presented by any one of these lines could not be carried save by a countless loss of life.

The lines of Torres Vedras formed a turning-point in the fortunes of the war. In 1810 Napoleon, who had crushed the Austrians in the great battle of Wagram, was able to send his best general, Masséna, with 70,000 veterans, to drive those "hateful leopards"—as he called the lions on our royal standard—"into the sea." Masséna, with his greatly superior forces, pressed the allies slowly back towards Lisbon, feeling sure that the English must surrender or embark. So secretly had the lines of Torres Vedras been constructed that Masséna had no intimation of their existence until he stood before them. Further acquaintance with this formidable barrier only convinced him that his task was hopeless. After wintering outside the lines he retired completely baffled, compelled to evacuate Portugal to find provisions for his army, having lost 30,000 men in the campaign and gained absolutely nothing.

Having now freed Portugal from the enemy, Wellington's next work was to cast him out of Spain. Three campaigns were found necessary for this task. It was accomplished in 1813, when the French were utterly routed at Vittoria, and compelled to beat a hasty retreat across the Pyrenees, leaving behind them 150 guns and all their treasure. Instead of the English leopards being driven into the sea, the French eagles were forced to take flight into France.

In the meanwhile Napoleon's great army of 400,000 men had perished in Russia, and in the retreat from the burning city of Moscow. Henceforth, Napoleon is like a hunted lion whom his enemies were gradually gathering round so as to cut off his retreat and encage him. Many a sanguinary battle was fought in Germany before this was accomplished. About the time the broken ranks of the French were pouring through the passes of the Pyrenees, their comrades were crossing the Rhine after their great defeat at Leipsic. The war was brought to a close by Napoleon's abdication (1814). He was ordered to retire to Elba, there to brood over his fallen fortunes, and to dream of a brighter day.

Wellington's work now seemed crowned with success. But really a greater task was yet to come. In March, 1815, all Europe was startled with the intelligence that the lion encaged at Elba had contrived to escape and was now at large in France. Thanks to the return, since the peace, of some 200,000 of his veterans from the prisons of Germany, Napoleon was soon at the head of a powerful army.

In the great battle of Waterloo (18th June, 1815), the fate of Napoleon was finally decided. It was the first time his Imperial Majesty had witnessed the unflinching courage and stubborn solidity of British troops, and ere the battle began he had mocked at Soult when he declared, "they will die rather than quit the ground on which they stand." Hour after hour the British columns were alternately assailed with cannon and cavalry. "Charge after charge was hurled against that dauntless line of British valour, every man a hero, to recoil before its steady blaze of fire and its glittering

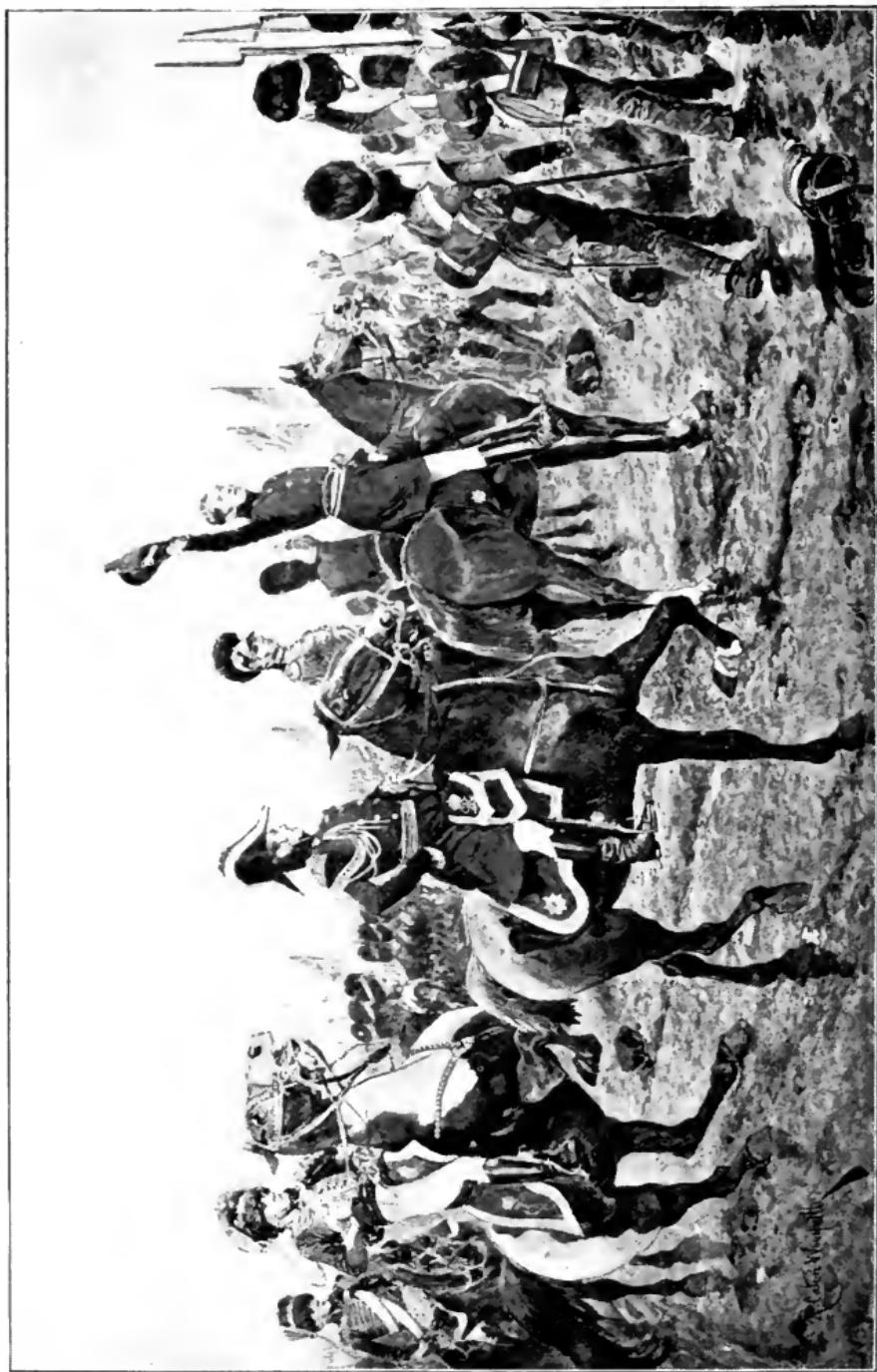
edge of steel." The day was yet undecided when the boom of distant cannon gave the signal that our Prussian allies were approaching.

Napoleon then knew that the time had come for one grand final attack. Putting himself at the head of the "Old Guard," which had been kept in reserve, the emperor advanced with them to the foot of the British position, and there he left them under the command of Marshal Ney. The British Guards met them with a murderous volley at fifty yards, and then with a ringing cheer burst down the slope to encounter the "Invincibles" of France. "They are hopelessly mixed," cried the fallen Bonaparte, as he rode away to the rear. "Let the whole line advance," was Wellington's final order.

Last, the Prussian trumpet blew ;
Thro' the long tormented air
Heaven flash'd a sudden jubilant ray,
And down we swept, and charged, and overthrew.
So great a soldier taught us there,
What long enduring hearts could do
In that world-earthquake, Waterloo.

VII. RESULTS OF THE WAR

WITH his defeat at Waterloo, Napoleon ceased to be the central figure of the civilised world. He was banished to the Isle of St. Helena, in the South Atlantic, and there he died in 1821. On his fall the nations of Europe entered on a long period of peace. A congress was held between the great powers at Vienna, and the map of Europe redrawn, France being thrust back within her ancient borders. During the war England



WELLINGTON AT WATERLOO—"LET THE WHOLE LINE ADVANCE."

had seized the colonial possessions of France. Those of Holland shared the same fate ; for she had thrown in her lot with her powerful neighbour. By the Treaty of Vienna, Great Britain was allowed to retain what is now called British Guiana, Ceylon, and the Cape of Good Hope, all of which she had taken from Holland : the island of Mauritius, which had long served the French as a base of operations for striking a blow at our Indian trade and possessions ; the islands of Trinidad and Tobago, in the West Indies ; and, lastly, the island of Malta placed like a watch-tower in the centre of the Mediterranean.

These gains were large, and all of them, it may be remarked, fell into British hands through our sovereignty of the seas. But so costly had been the war that it left us with a National Debt amounting to £880,000,000. That England was able to raise such a huge sum was due in no small measure to the recent industrial inventions, above all, the cotton-mill and steam-engine. England, indeed, might well place the statues of Arkwright and Watt by the side of those of Nelson and Wellington ; for had it not been for the wealth which the former created, there would have been no efficient fleets and armies for the latter to command. How great was that wealth-producing power may be imagined from the fact that the cotton exports alone during the period of the war, from 1793 to 1815, amounted in value to £250,000,000.

We usually associate peace with plenty ; but such was not the first results of the long peace which followed the victory at Waterloo. During the war the Government had borrowed vast sums of money, and spent

it freely in supplying the army and navy with all necessaries. But the time of spending was past, the time of retrenchment come. Thousands were in consequence thrown out of employment. Soldiers were disbanded, ships paid off, and thus thousands more were thrown on the labour market. One great advantage arose from this state of things. Finding it impossible to make a comfortable living, if any, in the old country, large numbers in the first years of the peace emigrated to the colonies, where brawny arms were in great demand, and where elbow-room was easily found for all who were willing and able to work with their hands.

We shall see, in the next chapter, that while the soldiers and sailors of the mother-country were fighting her battles against the man who was trying to enslave Europe, our countrymen in Australia and Cape Colony were laying the foundation of a new Colonial Empire in the South to compensate for the loss we had sustained in the West. We shall find, in particular, that in Australia the way had been fully prepared for the reception of thousands of free labourers just at the moment we had a large surplus population to spare. And to the reflecting mind the thought will occur that an unseen hand had been shaping the destinies of our race.

CHAPTER X

English Colonisation in the Southern Hemisphere

WE have already seen Great Britain expanding into Greater Britain by her colonisation and conquest in the Western world, and by the founding and extension of her rule in the East, over the princes and peoples of India. We have now to follow the fortunes of the British race in the Southern Hemisphere, where it was their destiny to plant nations on the shores of Australia, to people the valleys of Tasmania, to share New Zealand with the Maoris, to take possession of South Africa and lay there the foundation of a great empire.

That great work of colonisation in the South began in the year before the French Revolution, it made but little progress during the mighty struggle with France, but started into new life at the conclusion of peace. Emigration, on a large scale, carried off to new lands the strong arms set free by the cessation of war, and created new openings for the willing hands whose occupation was gone in consequence of the new machines. It gave a fresh start in life to thousands that found themselves "not wanted" here.

Though England, in the long peace that followed the

great French war, was busy at home hammering out great reforms of various kinds, yet the work in which she was engaged beyond the seas was, if possible, still more important. For by colonisation England was expanding her realm, widening her influence, extending the bounds of civilisation, increasing the commerce of the world and multiplying her own wealth ; she was, at the same time, providing new homes for her overflowing population, helping her people to live in comfort, and founding nations of the same type as herself—nations that should carry on her traditions, and order their life by her laws, literature, and religion.

I. FIRST SETTLEMENT IN AUSTRALIA

THE loss of our American Colonies in 1783 deprived us of a field of employment for our convicts, who had been sent during the last hundred years as forced labourers to the colonists. It now occurred to Pitt, Sydney, and other statesmen that New South Wales, lately discovered by Captain Cook, would be a suitable place for a penal settlement. They also hoped that in time free labourers would follow, and that British colonies would be founded in the South to redress the loss of those in the West.

The first convoy sent to Australia consisted of six transport ships, conveying 757 convicts, of whom about 200 were women, with three store ships carrying provisions to last two years, escorted by H.M.S. *Sirius* and an armed tender, called the *Supply*, the whole expedition being under the command of Captain Phillip, who had been appointed governor of the new settlement.

A force of about 200 marines was sent out as a guard, and these, with a few of their wives and children, raised the whole human freight to 1015 souls. At the Cape of Good Hope, then in the hands of the Dutch, the ships took on board some live stock and a good supply of poultry, together with some subtropical seeds and plants.

Captain Phillip went on ahead in the *Supply* to examine the country at Botany Bay, and fix upon the best site for the colony before the arrival of the transports. Finding Botany Bay an open roadstead, the governor went on to Port Jackson, which seemed to him "the finest harbour in the world," and there he resolved to plant the colony, naming the spot selected after Lord Sydney, Secretary of State. On returning to Botany Bay he fell in with two French ships, who were on a voyage of discovery. The rivalry between the two nations extended to this remote region, but here it took a peaceful form. Fortunately, England's command of the seas during the great French war, which broke out five years later, secured the infant colony from attack, whilst the war itself gave full occupation to the French at home and left them without the means of forestalling our country in the occupation of any part of Australia.

The disembarkation was completed on 7th February, 1788. Governor Phillip gathered his subjects around him, the military drawn up under arms, the convicts stationed apart. His commission being read, and emphasised by a triple discharge of musketry, the governor addressed the convicts, endeavouring to inspire them with hope as to their prospects, and to make them feel

that their future fortune was now placed in their own hands. He also reminded the marines that after three years' service, they would be at liberty to settle there as colonists with free gifts of land for cultivation.

Very soon the silence of the forests was broken by the sound of the axe and the crash of falling timber. The work, however, went on but languidly, for the labourers were convicts, "many of whom," said the governor, "dread punishment less than they fear labour." The task which the governor had undertaken was a colossal one : roads to make, wharves, barracks, and houses to build, crops to plant, live stock to breed, laws to administer, explorations to make. And the men and women to help him in the work, those who had never acquired the habits of industry or honesty. How the governor longed for the immigration of a few honest farmers from the old country appears in every despatch he sent home.

The first years of the new colony were as usual, in a new country, a time of deep distress. The soil around Sydney was rather sterile, the labourers were ignorant of husbandry, and for the first two years a great drought prevailed. The cattle broke loose and were lost in the "bush," the seeds for the most part failed to grow. Disputes soon arose with the natives, who were ill treated by the convicts in spite of every endeavour on the part of the governor to protect them. He had hoped to "furnish them with everything that can tend to civilise them and to give them a high opinion of their new guests." In July, 1788, the governor sent a despatch to the Home Government describing the state and prospects of the new settlement, and making it known that

he was almost wholly dependent on the provisions sent from England. Governor Phillip, however, was by no means despondent. "Anxious to render a very essential service to my country," he writes, "by the establishment of a colony which from its situation may hereafter be a valuable acquisition to Great Britain, no perseverance will be wanting on my part, and the consideration alone of doing a good work for my country could make amends for being surrounded by the most infamous of mankind."

The governor took every precaution to husband his resources. The stores were placed under guard and thieving prevented. At length it became necessary to put the whole colony on short rations, which had to be reduced to the lowest point of subsistence before relief arrived. To the credit of the governor, in this time of distress, he threw his own private stock into the common store and shared alike with the rest. And not less to his credit, under the circumstances, was the execution of six marines, who, placed on sentry over the stores, had taken advantage of their position to plunder them. The governor kept up heart and hope through this dark period. Three years, however, passed from the time of setting sail from home, before any ship with supplies reached them. The truth was, provisions had been sent, but the ship conveying them had been wrecked by collision with an iceberg.

To lessen the danger of starvation, the governor had sent a party, under Lieutenant King, by sea to Norfolk Island, where the soil was less sterile and more food could be obtained by fishing and fowling. But even there all were on the verge of starvation before succour

arrived. There also it became necessary to collect all private stores of food and to throw them into one common stock. All the inhabitants were summoned to meet at headquarters, when the lieutenant-governor addressed the convicts, pointing out the situation of the settlement and the steps he intended to take in the interests of the community. This speech was responded to by cheers, and then every person, beginning with the lieutenant-governor, passed under the Union Jack, taking off their hats as they passed it in token of an oath to submit loyally to the regulations made by those in authority.

Happily the firm government and wise measures adopted in both settlements kept the wolf from the door until effectual relief came from England (June, 1790). Governor Phillip, after spending five years, in his most arduous position, with rare courage, devotion, and humanity, returned home in December, 1792, entitled to an honoured place on the roll of the founders of our great Empire.

II. EARLY EXPLORATIONS IN AUSTRALIA

THE first explorations in Australia were made along the coasts. The first discovery of importance was made by a surgeon named Bass. In an open boat this enthusiastic explorer examined the coast between Botany Bay and Western Port, a distance of 600 miles, and proved that Tasmania was separated from the mainland by a strait that has since borne his name. By the end of 1803 the southern coast had been thoroughly explored, and ere long the outline of Australia was pretty accurately

determined. The chief merit of this achievement is due to Captain Flinders, who had the misfortune, on calling at the Mauritius for water, on his homeward voyage, to be seized and confined by the French governor, and deprived of his charts and journals. He was released only a few months before the island was captured by the English (1810).

Meanwhile, an exploration of a very different character was being conducted by Captain MacArthur. This enterprising man introduced the celebrated merino breed of sheep from the Cape of Good Hope, and by his sagacious experiments in crossing other breeds succeeded in producing wool of the finest quality. He thus laid the foundation of the material prosperity of New South Wales. The governor gave MacArthur a grant of land in the best district of the colony, and very soon the English woollen manufacturers began to draw their supplies of wool from the sheep pastures of Australia.

The pastoral industry is one that demands great stretches of suitable land for sheep-runs, and soon the sheep-farmers found the land at their disposal too strait for their requirements. The colony consisted, in its early days, of a narrow strip between the mountains and the sea. The Blue Mountains, which rose at the back of Sydney, seemed to present an impassable barrier to the unknown country beyond. For a quarter of a century these mountains defeated every effort to cross them. The difficulty of finding a passage arose, not from the want of gorges crossing the range, but from the fact that these gorges have no outlet. They are surrounded by perpendicular cliffs of enormous height.

At last, in 1813, when Macquarie was Governor

of New South Wales, the problem was solved. He induced three men, Wentworth, Blaxland, and Lawson, to undertake the perilous task. After crossing the Hawkesbury, at Emu Island, they had literally to hew their way through the tangled underwood and amongst the rocky gorges and precipices. They proceeded in this way by daily journeys of from three to five miles. On the eighth day they began to ascend the second ridge of the mountains, and a week later they had reached the last summit, when they were rewarded by the splendid prospect of the grassy plains which lay outspread at their feet. They now turned back, and in less than a month from the time of leaving home they entered Sydney with the news of their success.

The governor at once sent off another party to follow the same route and to carry the exploration another stage. Having reached a point about 150 miles from Emu Island, they returned with the report that the new country was "equal to every demand which this colony may have for extension of tillage and pasture lands for a century to come." Convict labour was forthwith devoted to making a road across the Blue Mountains. The undertaking, difficult as it was, was finished in two years, and in 1815, two months before the Battle of Waterloo brought peace to Europe, the road was formally opened. A little town, called Bathurst, after the Secretary of State, was founded and soon it became a flourishing farming centre.

News of the bright prospects of the colony reached England in the nick of time, when the end of the long war threw thousands of soldiers, sailors and workmen out of employment. A stream of emigrants soon began

to flow into Australia, and to clamour for gifts of land in the fertile country around Bathurst. From this time the colony, which had been a serious burden to the mother country, was able to raise from its own soil all the food that its inhabitants required.

The work of exploration went steadily on, Bathurst forming the starting-point. Little by little it became clear that behind the mountain-range that skirts the east and south-east coasts, there stretched far into the interior vast plains capable of feeding countless flocks, where now millions of sheep furnish wool for the looms of our manufacturers.

Colonists followed close on the heels of the explorer. As fast as the news spread of the discovery of lands suitable for pastoral or agricultural purposes, men moved on from less favoured districts to take possession, and with the aid of convict labour to turn their new lands to profitable account. Meanwhile a constant stream of immigrants from England trickled into Australia, bringing the capital and free labour needed for making the most of nature's gifts. The arrival of so many free labourers made convict labour unnecessary, and the feeling of the colonists against the reception of our rogues and scoundrels constantly grew stronger. Accordingly, in 1840, the transportation of convicts to New South Wales came to an end, and a few years later the system was abolished throughout Australia.

The same wisdom was shown in gradually admitting the colonists to a larger share in their own government. Whilst the convict system prevailed, it was impossible to grant anything like a full measure of self-government to the Australian colonies; but with the abolition of

that system an Act of Parliament conferred on each colony as it became fit a local Parliament for the management of its own affairs. At first, it laboured under some restrictions, but in the course of a dozen years a complete system of self-government was established ; as soon, in fact, as the colonists had proved their fitness to enjoy their birthright as Englishmen.

From New South Wales, the mother colony of Australia, have sprung the colonies of Tasmania, Victoria, and Queensland. Each of them spent its childhood in partial dependence on the mother colony, but as each became able to stand alone, arrangements were made for its separate existence. The two remaining colonies, in the south and west of Australia, were planted directly from England. South Australia dates its existence from the year before the Queen's accession, and its prosperity from the discovery of copper at Burra Burra (1845). West Australia, a somewhat older colony, has long lagged behind her sister colonies, but through the recent discoveries of gold within her borders she is beginning to lift her head.

III. COLONISATION OF TASMANIA AND NEW ZEALAND

TASMANIA, or Van Diemen's Land, as it was called originally, was the first to be separated from the mother colony and to have a government of its own. As early as 1804 a batch of convicts was sent there from England, and a settlement made where Hobart now stands. Through mismanagement the young colony was brought to the verge of starvation. Fortunately there were large

herds of kangaroo in the island. The governor, being unable to feed his prisoners, permitted them to hunt the kangaroo for their food. In fact, at one time, there was little to eat but kangaroo flesh, and little to wear but kangaroo skins. Many of the convicts became fond of this kind of life, and preferred the wild freedom of the "bush" to the more civilised life of the settlers.

When, in 1816, the first emigrant ship arrived with a large number of passengers, convicts were assigned to them as labourers; but many of them fled into the "bush," and lived a lawless life, preying upon the property of the settlers. The evil grew to such dimensions that, at last, murder, pillage, and arson rendered every homestead the scene of terror and dismay. Nor was "bushranging," as it was called, the only evil from which the early colonists suffered. The native blacks were naturally cruel and crafty, and they had been goaded on to take revenge on the white strangers by the barbarous treatment they had received from the runaway convicts.

Such was the terrible state of the colony when Colonel Arthur began his rule, which lasted from 1824 to 1836, and which laid the foundation of Tasmania's prosperity. He laboured with a resolute will to ascertain his duty, and was as rigid as rock in doing it. Under the influence of his unbending will, the settlers banded together against the bushrangers, and defended their homesteads as soldiers in regular warfare. Their buildings were perforated with loop-holes, men were posted as sentinels, and all preparations made to resist an attack, whether by day or night. The governor rewarded the capture of any bushranger with a grant of

land, and before the end of two years the whole gang was taken and executed.

The governor's next care was to relieve the colony of the blacks, between whom and the settlers a deadly feud existed. His desire was to collect all the natives and confine them to one district. To effect this he assembled all the settlers to aid his troops in driving the poor creatures out of their haunts. He placed his men at intervals, so as to form a line stretching right across the island, with orders to advance and either catch the blacks or coop them up in a corner of the island. The operation proved a complete failure. The wary savages made their way through the gaps, and only two of them were captured. But kindness succeeded where force failed. They were induced by George Robinson, who had won their confidence, to withdraw to Flinders Island. In the course of a few years the tribe became extinct. So great was the material progress of Tasmania during the twelve years of Colonel Arthur's rule that the imports rose from £60,000 to £600,000 a year.

In colonising Australia little account had to be taken of the natives, who were both few and feeble. It was otherwise with the natives of New Zealand. The Maoris, as they were called, were a fierce, warlike race, strong and brave, and notorious for their cannibalism. The colonisation of their country was only rendered possible by the work of the missionaries, who acted as the first pioneers of civilisation among them.

The first mission station in New Zealand was established, in 1814, by missionaries from New South Wales. The natives highly appreciated the kind

and patient labours of the missionaries in their endeavours to instruct them. As the first emigrants did not arrive till 1840, a whole generation had previously passed under the influence of the missionaries, who did much to soften the ferocity of the Maoris, and to modify or abolish their savage customs. Moreover, a brisk trade had sprung up between the Maoris and the colonists of New South Wales, which gave the natives a taste and desire for the conveniences of civilised life, and disposed them to look with friendly eyes upon the first English emigrants that came to settle in their country.

Before approving of the settlement of Englishmen in New Zealand, the Government were anxious to secure the consent of the Maoris. A naval officer, Captain Hobson, was sent to discuss the question with the chiefs, and to assume command as governor of the colony, if he found the natives willing. Thanks to the friendly relations maintained by the missionaries with the Maoris, and their mastery of the Maori tongue, Captain Hobson was able at once to enter into negotiations with the chiefs in a friendly spirit. They were induced to sign the Treaty of Waitangi, where the meeting was held, by which they took the Queen for their sovereign on the express understanding that their lands should remain at their own disposal. "The shadow of their lands," said an old Maori to his brother-chiefs, "would go to the Queen, but the substance would remain in their own hands." This treaty forms the Magna Charta of the Maoris, and has on the whole been loyally observed.

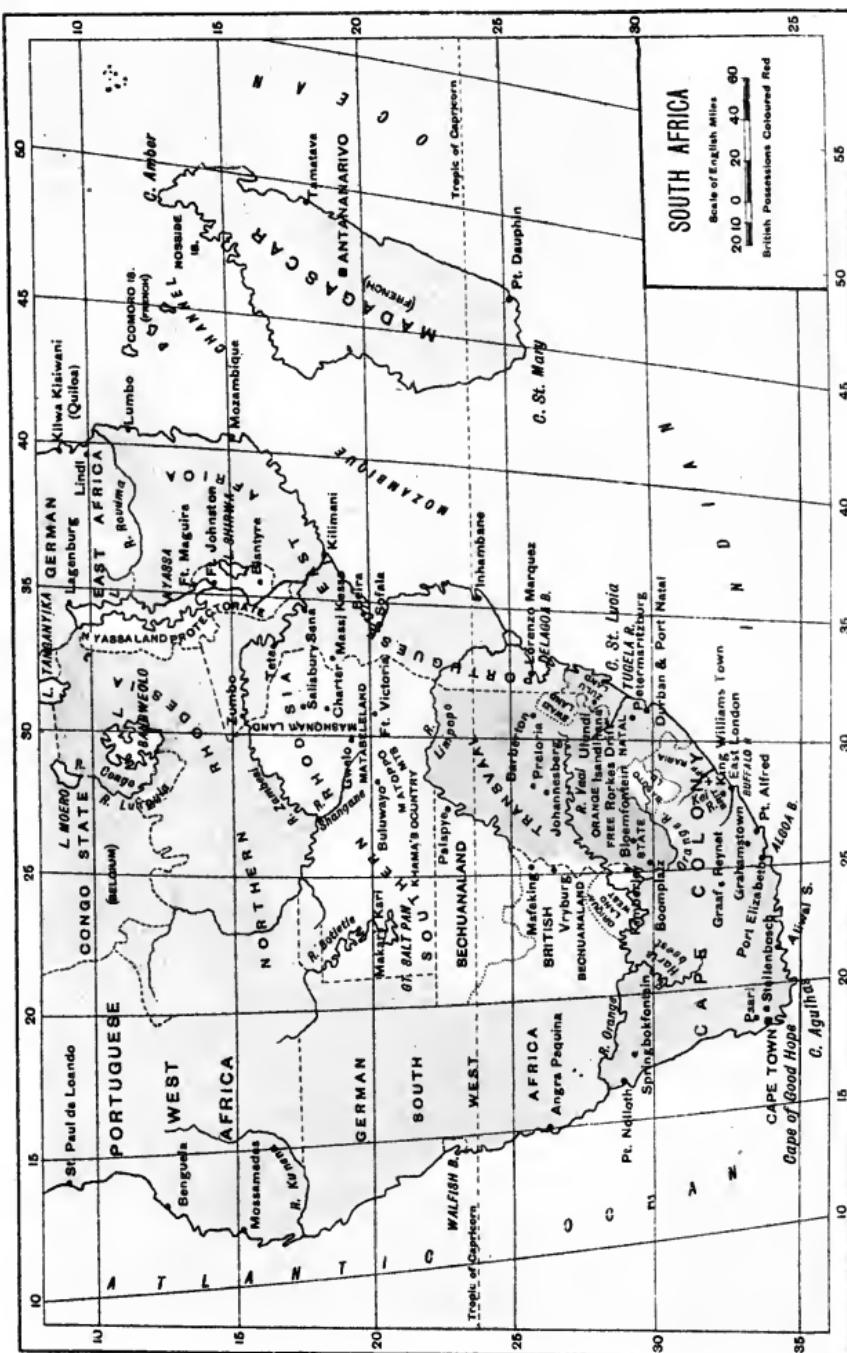
The first emigrants soon began to arrive, many of

them well educated men with capital to invest. So scantily was South Island inhabited by Maoris that purchases there were readily made, and before ten years had passed most of that island was in possession of the colonists. But in North Island, where the Maoris were more numerous, many difficulties were experienced in the transfer of land to the immigrants, and it was only on the appointment of Sir George Grey as governor (1845) that these difficulties were adjusted.

It is not easy to over-estimate the advantages which New Zealand derived from the prudent and energetic administration of Sir George Grey. At the end of his rule, in 1853, he left the colony in a state of actual and progressive welfare. The natives were fairly advancing in the arts of civilised life. Many were learning the use of ploughs and flour-mills and becoming the owners of horses, cattle, sheep, and farming implements. And so peaceful was New Zealand at that time, that unarmed Europeans traversed the country, on business or pleasure, with perfect security, and were received by the natives with kindness and hospitality.

IV. TAKING POSSESSION OF SOUTH AFRICA

THE English did not find in South Africa a territory waiting to be occupied like that in Australia, or even like that of New Zealand in the possession merely of native tribes, but a territory colonised by the Dutch and inhabited by numerous tribes of Hottentots and Kaffirs. The building up of a British State in South Africa has accordingly been a work of extreme difficulty, which has put the best qualities of the British race to a severe test.





The Dutch settled on the site of Cape Town as early as 1652, but the colony made little progress up to the beginning of the present century, when it fell into the hands of the British. On 4th January, 1806, the long expected blow fell upon the colony ; for Holland at the time was in close alliance with France, who had been rendered helpless on the sea by her defeat at Trafalgar. Flags from the signal-station at the Cape informed the Dutch authorities that a British fleet was approaching, and on the same evening no fewer than sixty-three ships anchored in the Bay, with an army on board 4,000 strong. The Dutch general saw that his cause was hopeless, and after a short but sharp engagement he capitulated.

The English Government, for some years, only valued the Cape as a military post, occupying a commanding position on the waterway to India, and serving as a convenient place of call for our East India merchantmen. But at the conclusion of the great French war, in 1815, so many thousands were thrown out of employment that the Government turned their attention to South Africa as a field for emigration, and induced the House of Commons to vote £50,000 to assist suitable families to settle there. By the help of this fund 5,000 picked emigrants were landed in Algoa Bay (1820), and founded the town of Port Elizabeth. These emigrants were of the right stamp. By their industry and vigour they gave new life and strength to the whole country. No disasters terrified them, no disappointments quenched their hopes of success. Droughts, floods, and locusts repeatedly destroyed the fruits of their labours ; Kaffir wars and treachery devastated their lands, and made

their homesteads the scenes of fire and bloodshed. But they bravely persevered, and by degrees Port Elizabeth became a flourishing town, and now the country around is as peaceable and secure as one of the home-counties.

The history of South Africa, for more than thirty years after the founding of Port Elizabeth, is marked by two special features, both arising from the fact that three races—British, Dutch, and Kaffir—were there contending for the mastery. As the colonists grew rich in sheep and cattle, and their homesteads became store-houses of corn and other products, the natives cast covetous eyes over their possessions and made sudden raids in the hope of plunder. Three serious wars had to be fought with the Kaffirs, with the aid of troops from England, before they were convinced that the white man had come to stay, and that his arm was stronger than theirs. The other marked feature was the repeated migration of the Boers, or Dutch farmers, in the endeavour to escape from British rule and taxation, and from the action of British law, which meted out the same measure of justice both to Boer and Hottentot. The question of the treatment of the native races was, and is, a standing cause of division between the Dutch and English of South Africa. The Boers seem to regard them as an inferior order of beings, without any rights of their own, fit only to live as slaves.

Cape Colony had not been long under British rule before it began to extend its boundaries. Each war with the Kaffirs ended in an extension of territory. As a result of the first Kaffir war (1834) the colony was pushed forward as far as the Kei river, and King William's Town was founded on the Buffalo.

In 1846 a second Kaffir war broke out, which is known as the "War of the Axe." A Kaffir was apprehended for stealing an axe, and while the prisoner was on his way to Grahamstown, manacled to a Hottentot, one of his tribe set him free by severing the Hottentot's wrist. So serious a war followed that Sir Harry Smith was appointed governor, and sent out from England to conduct operations. As a result of the war a large district was set apart for the natives under the name of British Kaffraria, in the hope that they would keep to their own domains, and live in peaceful security under British protection. At the same time the new governor issued a proclamation, declaring that the whole country south of the Orange river should henceforth be under British rule.

This led to war with the Boers, many of whom, having migrated to the district now annexed, found themselves, to their disgust, again in the position of British subjects. They naturally resented this forward movement of the Cape Government, and prepared to fight for their independence. Sir Harry Smith crossed the Orange river, and not far from that stream won the decisive battle of Boomplaats (1848). The Boers sullenly moved further north, crossed the Vaal river, and there founded the Transvaal, or South African Republic.

These were not the only Boers who had been compelled to "trek" there in order to preserve their independence. Some hundreds of Boer families had previously settled in Natal; but when that country was made a British colony (1843), they crossed the mountains and made new homes for themselves in the Transvaal. And when on the outbreak of a third

Kaffir war, in 1850, the British colonists found themselves in fresh difficulty and danger, they were glad to come to terms with the Boers, by which they not only acknowledged the independence of the Boers beyond the Vaal, but withdrew from the country between the Vaal and the Orange river, leaving the Boers to found there a second republic, the Orange Free State (1854).

It is true that the colonisation of South Africa was accelerated by these Boer migrations, and more scope given to the expansion of British rule and occupation in Cape Colony itself; but as a consequence, we have in our midst in South Africa two independent states peopled by a sturdy race, who nurse in their hearts an hereditary hatred of that Power which, in their view, had in turn exiled them from the Cape and from Natal, deprived them of the forced labour of the natives, and placed them on the same footing as Hottentots and Kaffirs in the courts of law.

The Governor who has done most, perhaps, to conciliate the natives was Sir George Grey, who in 1854 came here from New Zealand. He secured the co-operation of the Kaffir chiefs by giving them pensions for their services, and he established institutions where their young men might be trained in such useful occupations as gardening, farming, and carpentry. He also tried to cure the natives of their belief in witchcraft by opening a hospital for the free treatment of their sick. On his death recently (1898), Sir George Grey was buried at St. Paul's Cathedral, in recognition of his eminent services as a builder of our colonies in the Southern Hemisphere.

CHAPTER XI

Great Changes and Reforms

WE propose in this chapter to resume the story of that part of our great Empire which all our kith and kin across the seas still love to call "Home." The great war, which ended in victory at Waterloo, in 1815, left England for nearly forty years at peace with all European Powers. That period of peace was well spent in instituting a series of reforms which may be regarded as steps on the path of Freedom. These reforms, we shall find, bore very closely on the fortunes of our colonies. The same spirit that carried reforms here, and won for Englishmen at home the right of self-government, was soon in full operation with a like result in other parts of the Empire.

In this period also were introduced those marvellous applications of steam-power and electricity which have wrought a peaceful revolution in the world. How great the changes produced by the steam-ship, the locomotive-engine, and the telegraph, may be best realised by reflecting on the effect of putting a stop to the working of these three inventions for merely a single day. But what we are chiefly interested in is their power to unite the different parts of our widely-extended empire by bringing them into easy communication with

each other ; thus rendering it possible for our island kingdom to be its inner core and common centre of life, and the Empire itself a living whole, and not merely a loose collection of living parts.

I. THE BIRTHRIGHT OF ENGLISHMEN

ENGLAND boasts of being free and the mother of free nations. Freedom is now the birthright of all Englishmen, whether living in the mother country or the colonies. But that blessing, which we now regard as our birthright, has only come to us after centuries of strife and struggling. We have already seen how by the Rebellion and the Revolution the power of the sovereign was brought within due limits. But much remained to be done before personal liberty was brought home to the door of each Englishman.

For consider what our large liberty includes : The right to form our own opinions on all subjects, and to express the same freely, without injury to others, in speaking or writing ; the right to worship God according to our conscience without suffering penalties or disabilities on account of our religion ; the right for employers and workmen, like buyers and sellers, to settle their own terms without interference ; the right to be judged according to law without fear or favour ; and above all, the right to take part in levying taxes and making new laws by means of our representatives in Parliament. So far as a people enjoys this right, it may in a real sense be said to govern itself. And it is this self-government which constitutes true freedom. At the same time it must be remembered that it is not

every nation, nor all in any nation that are fit to govern themselves.

Some nations are like children, not wise enough to know what is for their own good ; and every nation passes through the stages of childhood and youth before it reaches the age of maturity and becomes capable of self-government. When then we show what great progress has been made in the present century on the path of freedom, it must not be supposed that we think our forefathers always to blame whenever they allowed less liberty to the mass of the people than that they now enjoy. Liberty is a good thing in itself, but it is liable to be misused and abused when the great majority of a nation are ignorant and void of self-respect and self-control.

To appreciate what has been done in the present century in the cause of freedom, it is necessary to know that when the 19th century began, the slave trade was still flourishing, that slaves were still employed in our colonies, that at home Roman Catholics were still at a serious disadvantage on account of their religion, that trade was in fetters, and that the right to return members to Parliament was limited to a small section of the community.

In 1807 a final stop was put to the slave trade as far as England was concerned. It was no longer possible for Englishmen with impunity to buy negroes in Africa and sell them in America. But the other reforms so much needed were necessarily put off until Napoleon was in safe keeping. Whilst the war lasted the cause of freedom was best served by giving our whole mind and strength to the task of beating the

enemy. It was *Freedom*, after all, that we were fighting for, since the surest way of forfeiting that blessing is to be conquered by a foreign nation.

The war left England in such a distressed and disordered condition that all reforms were postponed for some years. It seemed to the Government that it was necessary in the interests of order to draw the reins tighter rather than give greater freedom. At last, in 1828, the first instalment of reform was granted ; the Catholic Relief Bill was passed, by which the Roman Catholics were set free from all the shackles which had for nearly three centuries been fastened on them.

II. BROADENING THE BASIS OF ENGLISH LIBERTY AND LAW

FOR a nation to be free the law must be supreme, and the people themselves must have the right to legislate through their representatives. It is this fact which made the Parliamentary Reform Bill of 1832 of such vast importance. This reform was greatly needed, because in the course of centuries many old towns had dwindled into little villages, whilst many manufacturing towns had grown out of mere hamlets. It thus happened that many places consisting of a single street, or even less, sent two members to Parliament, whilst great towns like Leeds, Manchester, or Birmingham, sent none, and a little county like Rutland sent as many members as the largest or most populous.

By the Reform Bill seats in Parliament were taken from decayed boroughs and given to places that had become populous. And the franchise, or right to vote,

was made uniform in all boroughs instead of depending, as formerly, on custom, which varied with the locality. All householders, in a borough, who paid at least £10 as yearly rent, were now entitled to vote. In counties the franchise was granted to all freeholders of land worth at least forty shillings per annum, and to all farmers and others who paid at least £50 a year as tenants.

This moderate measure of reform was resisted strongly by a majority of the House of Lords, and the Bill was thrown out. The country was, in consequence, plunged into a dangerous fever, and the mad passions of the people found vent in burnings and riots. Bristol was only rescued from the hands of the mob when about a hundred had fallen victims to the bullet and sabre of the military. The attitude of the people throughout the country plainly declared that they would win their rights or risk their lives ; and the will of the nation prevailed.

It is worth observing how gradual have been the changes made in our Constitution. We seem to have learnt from the consequences of the Rebellion, which placed our liberties at the mercy of a military despot, to be chary of any sudden and great changes ; we seem to have learnt the lesson that Freedom can only be obtained when it is allowed to *grow*. Thus in the matter of Parliamentary Reform, we did not attempt to do everything that was needed in one Bill at one time ; but we have gained what we wanted by means of three Bills, passed at intervals of twenty or thirty years, the first becoming law in 1832, and the last in 1884, more than fifty years afterwards. By the third

Reform Act the franchise has been granted to all householders, small or large, both in boroughs and counties.

The wisdom which gradually widened the basis of the British Constitution has had the effect of strengthening the whole fabric. Every class of our countrymen now knows that if it suffers from any injustice, it is able to make its grievance felt in Parliament, without the necessity of committing lawless acts to call attention to its wrongs. This orderly attitude and law-abiding spirit tend greatly to strengthen our country and to raise it in the estimation of other nations, making them feel that we are a united people, and that when our Foreign Minister speaks on any question affecting the rights and interests of England he has the whole nation at his back.

III. FREEING SLAVES, BOTH BLACK AND WHITE

THE passing of the Reform Bill of 1832 gave a great impetus to many other reforms. The most remarkable of the measures carried in the first reformed Parliament was an Act for the abolition of slavery in our colonies. The slave trade with all its horrors had been abolished in 1807 ; no more slaves could be transported from Africa into our colonies. But those already there were in the same position as before. Long ago it was declared by our judges that, by the law of England, a slave became free the moment he touched our shores.

Slaves cannot breathe in England ; when their lungs
Receive our air, that moment they are free ;
They touch our country, and their shackles fall.

It was now resolved that the same air of freedom should blow from end to end of all our colonies, and that not a

slave should breathe within the borders of our empire. When an evil, however, has been allowed to spring up, it is often not possible to root it up all at once without doing injury to many individuals. The slavery system had been permitted by law to take deep root in our colonies, and its abolition threatened to ruin the owners of the sugar and cotton plantations.

The feeling, however, against this iniquitous system was found to be so strong in the reformed House of Commons that it was determined, at whatever cost, to remove this blot from the English name. No less than twenty millions of money were voted as compensation to the planters of the West Indies and to the Boers of South Africa for the loss of their slaves. The Emancipation Act took effect on 1st August, 1838. On that day 800,000 African bondsmen were set at liberty. Not a slave remained in the whole of the British Empire.

Although we had no actual slaves in England who could be bought and sold and compelled to work against their will, yet, in order to keep body and soul together, thousands of poor women and children suffered greater hardships in the mines and factories of England than the slaves had done on many a plantation in the West Indies. We had set free the black slaves in our colonies, it was time to do something for the white slaves at home. It was now ordered by Act of Parliament that in no factory should children work at all below nine years of age, and that none below thirteen should work more than nine hours a day.

But of all the poor children in England, the ones to be most pitied were the "Climbing Boys," whose duty it was to climb up chimneys and sweep them. These

boys began their miserable employment when only five or six years old. They were generally poor orphans, or children sold by brutal parents, and trained to force their way up long, narrow, winding chimneys to clear away the soot. A sort of bag was tied round their



LORD SHAFTESBURY.

heads, and the ascent was made by pressing toe and heel alternately against the rough sides of the chimney. Such was the method in common use when the Queen began her reign. Three years later, in 1840, Lord Shaftesbury procured an Act making it illegal to employ children in this way.

So far, the children only had been cared for. The cause of the women was next taken in hand by the same nobleman. Many Acts were passed, through him, tending to lighten the lot of women and children. And in 1847 he succeeded in limiting the hours of work of women and young persons in factories to ten hours a day. This great change also affected the working hours of men in factories, for the mills could not be kept open when the women and young persons ceased their labours.

Few things excite our astonishment more than to find that at the beginning of the century there were no less than 200 crimes punishable by hanging. Any one, for instance, who stole a sheep or a horse, who hunted in the royal forests, or caught fish in certain rivers without a license, was liable to be hanged. In fact, such minor offences as picking a man's pocket, stealing linen from a bleaching ground, or purloining goods worth five shillings from a shop were all, according to law, punishable by death. This severity, however, defeated itself. As a rule, sufferers refused to prosecute, juries to convict, and judges to order hanging; but occasionally life was taken for some small offence.

A great change was made in the law respecting the death penalty by the Reformed House, and in 1845 the change was carried still further through the efforts of Sir Robert Peel, who passed a Bill restricting capital punishment to treason, murder, or attempted murder; and since then the last also has been excluded. It was soon found that the milder penalties had a greater effect; for juries no longer hesitated to convict a prisoner if the evidence proved him guilty.

IV. FREEING THE MEANS OF LIFE AND KNOWLEDGE

AT the beginning of the century there was scarcely anything imported into the country which was not taxed. "Taxes upon every article," says a witty writer of the time, "which enters the mouth, or covers the back, or is placed on the foot . . . taxes on the sauce that pampers appetite and the drug that restores health; on the ermine which decorates the judge and the rope which hangs the criminal, on the poor man's salt and the rich man's spice, on the brass nails of the coffin and the ribbons of the bride—at bed or board, downlying or uprising, we must pay." At the present time the only goods brought into the country on which duties have to be paid are wine, beer, spirits, tobacco, tea, lace, gold, and silver. The duties are now levied only on such articles as rank as luxuries, but formerly on the most necessary articles; even corn was no exception.

But soon after the passing of the Reform Bill of 1832 an agitation began in favour of *Free Trade*, especially in corn. Sir Robert Peel, who became Premier in 1841, was a great free-trader; but he thought there were special reasons for making corn an exception. He accordingly retained the duty on corn whilst freeing a host of articles from the duty which added comparatively little to the revenue, whilst acting as a serious trammel on trade. Indeed, in 1845 he took the duty off no fewer than 430 articles, and imposed an income tax in its place.

Before the end of the year, however, he saw reason to doubt the wisdom of making corn an exception to the

rule; for in that year great distress was caused in England and a terrible famine in Ireland by the potato blight. The opinion daily gained ground in men's minds that the duty on foreign corn was "the blight of commerce, the bane of agriculture, the source of bitter division among classes, the cause of penury, fever, mortality and crime among the people." Before another year had passed Sir Robert Peel carried his Bill for the repeal of the corn duty, and thus secured for the poor man a cheap loaf, his "staff of life."

Another important change made at different times during the present century has greatly cheapened the means of knowledge. Taking, for example, the year 1815, when the battle of Waterloo was fought, there was not only a heavy tax on every ream of paper manufactured, but every copy of a newspaper before it could be sold had to be impressed with a fourpenny stamp. It is true only a portion of the working classes knew how to read, but those who could read had but few opportunities of getting a glimpse of a newspaper. And, consequently, the majority of the people were quite in the dark as to the way the affairs of the country were managed by their rulers.

In 1836 the newspaper duty was lowered to a penny, and a great impetus given to the publication of news. Twenty years later the duty was taken off altogether, and when in 1861 the duty was taken off the manufacture of paper, the way was opened up for the publication of a good daily paper at the price of one penny. At the same time many new materials were employed in making paper by which the price of paper has been greatly reduced and the expense of producing books of

all kinds much lessened. Thus knowledge has been brought within reach of almost the poorest. And by means of the large sums spent by the nation in educating the children of the working classes, all can now learn to read and gain knowledge without let or hindrance.

V. GRANTING SELF-GOVERNMENT TO THE COLONIES

THE wider freedom gained for Englishmen at home by the reforms already described in this chapter was soon to be granted to our colonial countrymen. Canada was the first to obtain the boon of self-government. Let us see how this result was reached.

Thirty years after the conquest of Canada by the British, it was divided into two provinces, Upper and Lower; the former inhabited chiefly by persons of British origin, the latter by descendants of the old French settlers. By the Act of 1791 an endeavour was made to shape the government of each province to the views of the predominant race. For the next thirty years all classes seemed contented, the two races lived on friendly terms, and the whole colony advanced in population and wealth.

But time works changes. Nations pass through stages as well as individuals. Thus constant changes are required in the Government to keep pace with the changing circumstances and wants of a people. In the year of Queen Victoria's accession we find all Canada discontented and disloyal, and the Lower Province on the eve of rebellion. The rebellion, which actually

broke out in 1837, was in a military sense by no means formidable. On all sides the insurgents were crushed, the gaols were filled with their leaders, one hundred and eighty were sentenced to be hanged, and a few were actually executed.

Lord Durham was sent over with the olive leaf of peace and reconciliation. He was directed to ascertain the causes of the rebellion, and to suggest remedies. He reported that the root of the whole mischief was to be found in the Constitution under which the people were governed. The ministers were not responsible, as they are in England, to Parliament, and so they could set at defiance the House elected by the people. The Lower House was expected to vote funds for the ministers to spend, but it had no control over the expenditure. The Canadians were disloyal, reported Lord Durham, "because the administration of public affairs was permanently in the hands of a Ministry not in harmony with the popular branch of the Legislature."

In accordance with Lord Durham's recommendations the two provinces were reunited, with one common Parliament, to which each sent the same number of members. An Executive Council, composed of eight members, was appointed and made responsible to the "Assembly," as the Lower House was called. To the Assembly also was granted the control of all the revenues of the colony.

Lord Durham's report, with its statement of colonial grievances and his proposed remedies, forms a new era in our colonial history. From it we date the self-government of the British colonies. Not that the complete management of their affairs was at once ceded

to the colonists ; but the principle of self-government was now fully admitted, and its practical application was realized in the course of a few years. What was done now in Canada served as a precedent for other colonies, and secured for all alike that system of government which gives full play to local feelings, opinions, and prejudices, and places the destinies of each colony in its own hands, whilst uniting all under the protection of one flag and in allegiance to one sovereign.

The first Canadian Parliament, under the new regulations, met in 1841. The most important Act of the first session assigned to each town and district the management of its own local matters. Thus the principle of self-government was brought home to the door of each colonist. This is the secret of England's success in the government of her world-wide empire, with its endless diversities of peoples, character, and conditions of existence, whereby liberty and loyalty go hand in hand.

VI. MARVELS OF STEAM AND ELECTRICITY

THE wonders of the steam-engine were never so striking as when first used to propel a ship through the water against wind and tide. The first steam-boat was seen, in 1807, on the river Hudson in the United States. Five years later one was placed on the river Clyde, and before the Queen had reigned two years great ocean liners accomplished the voyage across the Atlantic by steam-power only. Meanwhile the steam-engine was fast becoming the chief locomotive power on land.

The first successful locomotive engine was the *Rocket*,

constructed by George Stephenson. In 1829 a great trial was held between four engines, which had been designed by different makers, in view of a prize that had been offered for the best working locomotive. Of the *Rocket's* three competitors, one broke down, the second crept along at walking pace, the third would not budge. The *Rocket* went off at the rate of thirty miles an hour. The Liverpool and Manchester railway was opened in 1830, and proved so successful that a network of railways soon spread all over the United Kingdom. People who before the introduction of the railways had taken sixty hours to go from London to Liverpool, found that they could now accomplish the journey in one-sixth the time. It seemed to them that the facts of real life were become as wonderful as the fictitious tales of fairies and genii which had amused them in childhood.

About the time of the Queen's accession electricity began to be applied to telegraphy. The railways were soon furnished with telegraphic posts and wires, and by means of the new invention of the electric telegraph the traffic was regulated and accidents in great measure prevented. After a time the lightning messenger was taken into the service of the general public, who could for a small sum send a word of sorrow or joy, congratulation or warning, from one end of our island to the other, and receive a reply in what seemed then an incredibly short time. The sea at first placed a bound to the powers of the telegraph; but before twenty years had elapsed means were discovered of stretching a wire across the sea by means of a cable laid along its bed. The discovery of gutta-percha rendered this possible. And no sooner had an electric cable been stretched

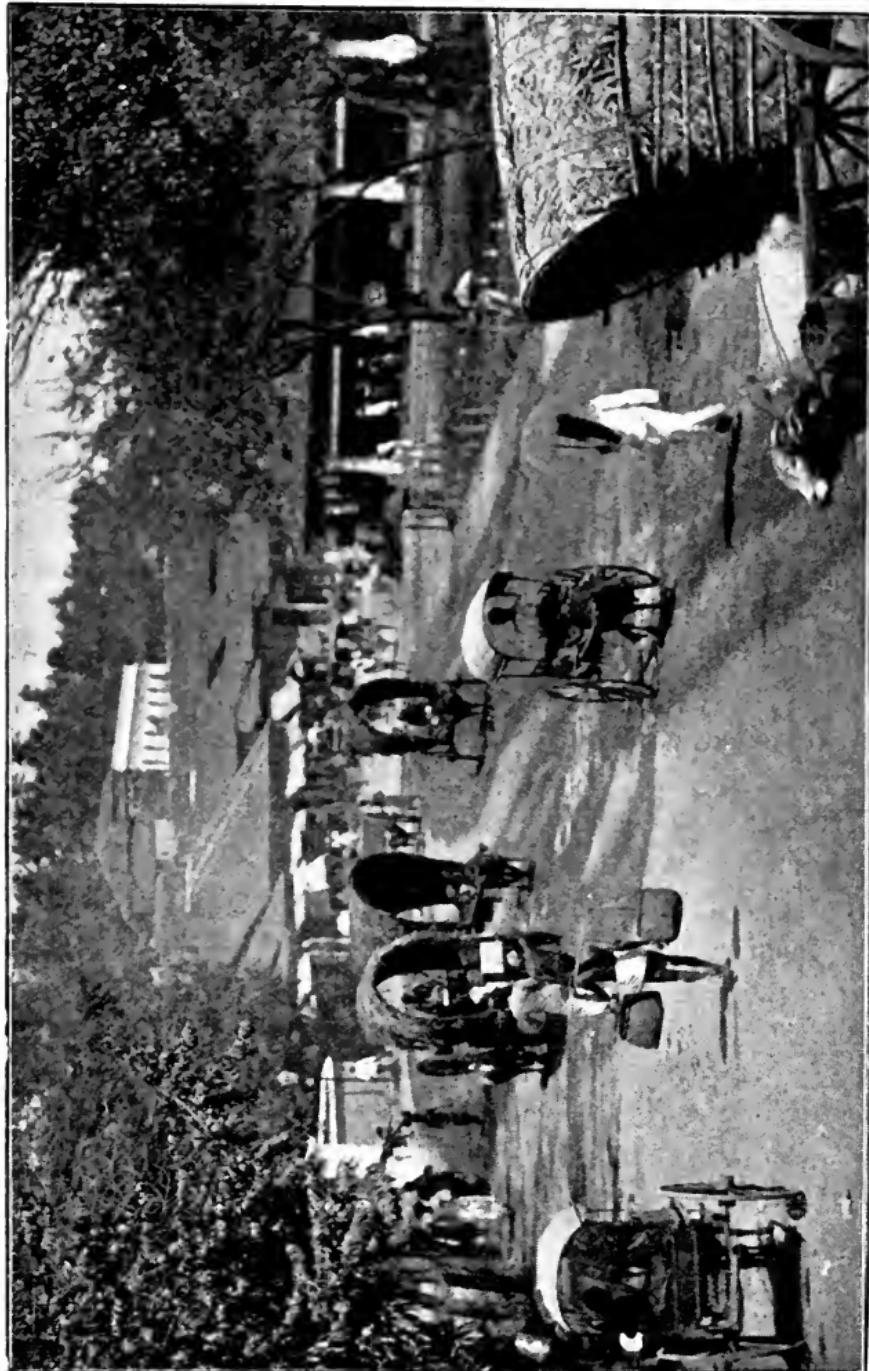
across the Strait of Dover than men began to talk of an ocean cable between Europe and America. It took, however, nine years of persevering effort to achieve success. At last, in 1866, the feat was accomplished. And now the world is girdled with invisible wires, and all the widely-separated parts of our great empire are within speaking distance of each other.

Nor must we, in recounting these means of quickening communication, forget what we owe to the *penny post*. This boon was granted by the Government for the first time in 1840. Up to that time the rates of postage had been both high and various. They varied not only according to the weight of the letters, but more particularly according to the distance they were to be carried. A letter which cost twopence, when taken from one part of London to another, cost eightpence when carried from London to Brighton, and fifteenpence from London to Aberdeen.

The great reform in the postage system was brought about by Rowland Hill, who wrote a pamphlet, in which he recommended one uniform charge, irrespective of distance, within the United Kingdom. He argued that one penny the half-ounce would not only clear all expenses, but produce a handsome profit on account of the vast increase it would cause in the business of the post-office. His plan was received at first with some merriment as not worthy of serious attention. But on further consideration, Parliament adopted his scheme with marvellous results. In 1839, the last year of the old postage system, the number of letters sent amounted to 80 millions; in 1897, the number exceeded 2,000 millions.

An endeavour has lately been made, with almost complete success, to establish an *Imperial Penny Post*, so that a letter might be sent between any two places in the Empire, however distant, for the small charge of one penny. On New Year's Day, 1899, this system will probably come into force in nearly the whole Empire except Australia, which at present cannot afford to carry letters at such a low price, on account of the great distances to be covered in reaching its widely-scattered population.

All these increased facilities of travelling and communication by means of steamships, railways, electric telegraphs and cheap postage have had a great influence in keeping all parts of our widely-extended Empire in close touch with each other. If a special cricket match is played in Australia, the results and all the turns of the game are known in England on the same day. If a battle has been fought in any part of the world in which our soldiers have taken part the details are almost simultaneously scanned by our countrymen in all parts of the globe. Thus distance has been almost annihilated by the telegraph, whilst the greater speed in travelling, due to the agency of steam, has turned the journey of a week into that of a day.



AN INDIAN SCENE.

CHAPTER XII

British Rule in India

OUR attention is next due to the progress of India under British rule, and the developments which that rule has undergone in the course of the Queen's reign. We have already traced the growth of British sway and influence in India until the British Government was recognised as the paramount power in that country from the Himalayas to Cape Comorin, and from the Punjab on the west to Burma on the east. These two countries had not yet been brought within the limits of our empire when the Queen began her reign, but the fruit was fast ripening and almost ready to fall into our hands.

We have now to enquire what use the British have made of their predominant power in India; whether they have used it in a selfish spirit, or in the interests of the inhabitants. We have also to trace the further growth of our Indian Empire, the dangers to which its existence was exposed by the great Indian Mutiny, and the heroism displayed by our countrymen in passing through that terrible ordeal.

I. ENGLAND'S BENEFICENT RULE IN INDIA

THE early history of British rule in India is mainly concerned with the course taken to lay the foundations of our power and to build solidly thereon. To establish a firm and just rule, and to save the country from anarchy and oppression, were necessarily the chief aims of the first British rulers in India. But with the installation of Lord William Bentinck, as Governor-General, in 1828, our rule entered on a new phase. Since then it has been our great aim and pride to administer the government of India in the interests of the native races, to exercise over them a beneficent rule, to develop the resources of their country, and to guard against those periodical scourges of India—drought, flood, famine and plague.

The most memorable act of Lord Bentinck's government was the abolition of *suttee*, or the burning of widows, by their own consent, on their husband's funeral pile. The immolation of a widow, in this way, was regarded as a religious rite of great sanctity. And so common was the practice that in a single year, in Bengal alone, 700 widows were burnt alive. To this day, the sacred spots of Hindoo pilgrimage are thickly dotted with little white pillars, each commemorating a *suttee*. Lord Bentinck issued a proclamation declaring that all who abetted *suttee* would henceforth be held guilty of culpable homicide.

No Viceroy ever trod more zealously on the beneficent path marked out by Lord Bentinck than the great statesman, the Marquis of Dalhousie, who ruled India between 1848 and 1856, although it fell to his lot to

annex more territory, perhaps, than any other British ruler in India, before or since. That rulers exist only for the good of the governed was the guiding principle of his rule. To do away with abuses, to redress wrongs, to deal equal justice all round, to make the British rule a blessing to India, was the manifest aim of his government.

Lord Dalhousie put down *suttee* in the states under Indian princes as Lord Bentinck had done in those under British rule. Whilst careful to abstain from all interference with the religious practices of the natives that did not involve the commission of crime, he endeavoured to win them from their cruel superstitions and self-tortures by means of education. A regular system of state-aided schools was established throughout India. And he strongly maintained that it was quite as important to educate the girls as the boys.

During Dalhousie's rule steps were taken to improve the means of communication. A cheap uniform postage was introduced, in 1853, by which a letter could be sent from one end of India to the other for half an anna, or three farthings. In the same year also was opened for traffic the first section of an Indian railway. The new mode of travelling rose at once into favour with the natives of India. They soon saw the advantage of cheap travelling at the rate of twenty-five or thirty miles an hour in carriages drawn by the English fire-horse.

The popularity of this new mode of travelling having been tested, Lord Dalhousie drew up a scheme for laying down 4,000 miles between the great centres of population and the seats of government. Not only, he argued, was the enterprise of great political value to the

government, inasmuch as it would greatly aid in the movement of troops to any threatened quarter, but it would also facilitate commerce. "Great tracts," he wrote, "are teeming with produce they cannot dispose of. . . . Ships from every part of the world crowd our ports in search of produce which we have, or could obtain in the interior, but which at present we cannot profitably fetch to them." His scheme was accepted by the Court of Directors at home, and in the course of twenty years was carried into effect.

The great Viceroy also, meanwhile, set in action a scheme for binding all India together by a girdle of telegraph wires. In the last two years of his rule no less than 4,000 miles of electric telegraph were put in working order. The difficulties to be overcome were very great. The wires had to be carried, on bamboo poles, or on pillars of stone and iron, over broad swamps and rocky wastes, through dense and deadly jungles, up wild mountain steeps, and across seventy large rivers. And all this had to be done in spite of the depredations of white ants, wild beasts, and half-civilised men, besides the trying conditions of the Indian climate. Thanks to Lord Dalhousie's wisdom and enterprise, the telegraph averted many a disaster on the outbreak of the great mutiny in 1857.

II. GROWTH OF OUR INDIAN EMPIRE

WHEN the Marquis of Dalhousie landed at Calcutta (1848), he found the whole country in a state of peace, not a war-cloud was seen even of the size of a man's hand. But within a twelvemonth the whole scene was

changed. The disturbing element was the Sikhs, a proud and warlike people that inhabited the Punjab, or Land of the Five Rivers. They had already fought desperately for the mastery of India and been defeated. A British army had marched into Lahore, their capital, and dictated terms of peace, by which the Sikhs, though left under the rule of a native prince, were required to receive a British officer at the royal court and to be guided by his advice.

Lord Dalhousie had not been a twelvemonth in India when he found himself compelled to renew the war with the Sikhs. "I have wished for peace," he said, "I have longed for peace; I have striven for it. But unwarned by precedent, uninfluenced by example, the Sikh nation has called for war, and on my word, sirs, they shall have it with a vengeance." A month later, a British army, under Lord Gough, was encamped beyond the Ravee, where it rolls past the walls of Lahore. After two serious engagements the two armies came into collision at Chilianwalla (1849). As the result of a desperate fight, the Sikhs retreated, but it came nearer a drawn battle than any other pitched battle that had been fought by us in India.

About a week later the troops again marched against the enemy, who had been joined by 1,500 Afghan horse, and numbered 60,000 men with sixty guns. The battle was fought at Googerat and ended in the rout of the Sikhs. Sir Walter Gilbert, renowned for feats of horsemanship as well as arms, set off, at the head of 12,000 picked troops, to complete the victory. By a series of rapid marches he ran down one body of Sikhs after another, and in the course of two or three weeks at least

20,000 Sikhs with their arms and remaining guns surrendered to "the flying general."

The fitting sequel to this triumph of arms was the proclamation of the Governor-General, announcing that henceforth the Sikhs must regard themselves as British subjects, and the Land of the Five Rivers as a part of British India. It had been the aim of British policy to maintain a strong friendly power between the Afghans and the British frontier. But as the Sikhs had chosen to throw in their lot with the Afghans and to contend with us for supremacy in India, the only safe course remaining was to annex the Punjab and to appoint British officers to administer the government. Two famous brothers, Henry and John Lawrence, were sent to set things in order in this great province and to establish a firm and just government. So well did the brothers fulfil their mission that the Sikhs became our staunch friends, and in the Indian Mutiny fought most bravely, shoulder to shoulder, with British troops.

But previous to the Mutiny, only three years after their defeat, we find a Sikh regiment fighting with our troops in Burma, in what is known as the Second Burmese War (1852). This war was brought about by the refusal of the King of Burma to make compensation for the wrongs done to two British merchants. When Lord Dalhousie's temperate demand was only met by insults and evasions, he felt compelled to threaten war, if satisfaction was not made within a stated time.

Already by the First Burmese War had been added to our Indian Empire the provinces of Assam, Aracan, and Tenasserim. And now, before the year's end, the whole Burmese seaboard had passed into our hands;

Prome had fallen, and the province of Pegu, which occupies the southern part of the Irrawaddy basin, was at our disposal. As the people of that province everywhere greeted us as friends, and besought us to deliver them from the tyranny of their king, there was good reason to think that it could be held by a comparatively small number of troops. It was, accordingly, annexed to our Indian Empire and has proved a valuable possession. Rangoon, in this province, has become one of the great ports of the Empire. In thirty years its population increased fifteen-fold, and its trade grew in the same proportion. The rest of Burma was added to our Indian Empire as the result of the Third Burmese War in 1885.

Many other annexations in India itself were made whilst Lord Dalhousie presided over its destinies. His great maxim, it will be remembered, was "the good of the governed." And as he believed that the people were better off under British rule than any other, he took every advantage to substitute British rule for that of a native prince. Ignoring the fact that people often prefer to be misgoverned by their own princes, according to their own customs, than rightly governed by any one else, the Marquis considered himself justified in dethroning the King of Oudh, the fairest province of India.

The British Resident at Lucknow, the capital of Oudh, had reported that under its native ruler Oudh knew neither law nor justice. The strong, he said, everywhere preyed upon the weak, and what might be the garden of India was fast becoming a wilderness, whilst the king amused himself in the company of

fiddlers, singers, buffoons and dancing girls. The Governor-General, in consequence, sent out a proclamation declaring Oudh henceforth a British province. British troops held the capital, and the people everywhere seemed to submit quietly to their new masters. But unlike the Burmese of Pegu, who cordially welcomed British rule, the people of Oudh preferred native misrule to anything we could give them in exchange. Lord Dalhousie's high-handed proceeding in dethroning their king had probably a large share in producing that suspicious unrest, and smouldering feeling of disloyalty and dislike, which in the following year burst suddenly into flame, and threatened to leave us nothing but the blackened ruins of our Indian Empire.

III. THE INDIAN MUTINY

JUST as the conquest of India seemed complete, the whole fabric of our Empire threatened to fall about our ears. There had long been a prophecy current among the Hindoos that the hundredth anniversary of the battle of Plassey would see the end of British rule in India. And now the fateful year (1857) was come. Lord Dalhousie's term of office had expired. His successor, Lord Canning, was fortunately a man with a cool head, a firm will, and a calm courage that never faltered. England, in her hour of danger, has never wanted brave and patriotic sons to defend and maintain her cause; and never has this been more conspicuously the case than in the Indian Mutiny.

The outbreak of the mutiny occurred in May, 1857, at Meerut, an important military station about forty

miles from Delhi. The mutinous Sepoys killed their officers, forced open the gaol, and marched off to Delhi, to place themselves under the authority of the dis-crowned Mogul emperor. By this step the mutiny was transformed into a revolutionary war. They had now a centre of union and a cause to fight for. The telegraph flashed the news of the mutiny to distant parts of India, and enabled our officers in many places to disarm their Sepoy regiments before the latter had heard of the outbreak. Thus at Lahore, the capital of the Punjab, where were stationed 2,000 Sepoy troops, the bold and prompt measures of the authorities averted the danger of treachery. The whole body was cleverly disarmed and disbanded before they had time for a moment's consultation.

The Punjab was not only saved by such measures as this, but under the happy exertions of the governor, Sir John Lawrence, it furnished our army with a large contingent of Sikh soldiers, who proved invaluable in our service. A few weeks after the first outbreak, a combined British and Sikh force, despatched from Lahore, arrived at Delhi. Our men posted themselves on a commanding ridge outside the city, and proceeded to strengthen their position and to hold it against all comers, whilst waiting for reinforcements.

Whilst Sir John Lawrence was straining every nerve to collect forces in the Punjab, and to push them on with all speed to Delhi, his brother, Sir Henry Lawrence, was rendering a service, scarcely less valuable, at Lucknow, the capital of the newly-annexed kingdom of Oudh. Forewarned by telegraph, he brought all the Europeans within the "Residency," as the government

buildings were called, stocked it well with provisions and ammunition, and fortified it as far as his means permitted. Lawrence himself had not long to endure the terrible siege that soon began. A shell burst in his room and he was mortally wounded. He desired that on his tomb should be engraven, "Here lies Henry Lawrence, who tried to do his duty."

The siege of Lucknow is one of the most memorable in our history. Never were British valour and indomitable pluck more conspicuous than in the defence which was here maintained by a few resolute men, in the presence of their wives and children, against an uncountable host of besiegers. The women, by their cheerful, calm, and hopeful endurance of danger, sickness, and every form of distress, were a real help instead of a hindrance. General Havelock had promised to come to their rescue. Wistfully they looked for him day after day, for weary weeks and months. They afterwards learned that he had fought and won nine battles in his endeavour to reach them, but it was impossible for him, until reinforced, to advance farther than Cawnpore. At length, reinforcements arrived at Cawnpore under Sir James Outram, who by his superior rank was entitled to assume the chief command and to march to the relief of the Residency. But the admiration which the truly great feel for true greatness made him resolve to leave Havelock in command, so that the whole glory of the enterprise might be his. At length, on the 23rd September, just when the garrison seemed on the eve of surrender, the longed-for help arrived.

All this time the eyes of India and Great Britain were earnestly fixed on Delhi. It was there, all felt,

the question was being fought out whether the British should continue to be the paramount power in India. It was there, if anywhere, that the neck of the rebellion must be broken. For three long months our men had to cling to their position on the ridge, outside the city, before obtaining sufficiently heavy guns to begin the siege. Meanwhile, fresh mutineers poured into Delhi, and all our available troops hastened thither. Great was the joy in the British camp on the arrival of General Nicholson, known alike to friend and foe for his daring valour and enterprise. His coming inspired our men with extraordinary courage and resolution. All were eager to follow where he led.

After a bombardment of three days, two great breaches opened the way for the assault (Sept. 14), and an entrance at each breach was made at the point of the bayonet, every man striving to emulate the brave deeds of their leader, the gallant Nicholson, who was unhappily killed in the hour of victory. Of the many daring deeds performed that day the most memorable was the perilous exploit of blowing up the Cashmere Gate, to open a way for the third column of our troops. A small band of heroic men volunteered to place bags of gunpowder under the gates, in face of the enemy, to light the fuse for the explosion, and to take the risk of being shot or blown up in the attempt. Three were killed, but the fourth succeeded. Before the smoke had cleared away our troops were through the gate. Though the entrance to the city was gained, the work had only begun. Every street and public building had been fortified and had to be won by steady and persistent fighting. It was not until the sixth day that our men had fought their way

to the Mogul's palace in the heart of the city. When the British flag waved over the palace, all felt that the rebellion had received its death-blow, and that our Indian Empire was saved.

Sir Colin Campbell, who had arrived from England to take the chief command, now turned his arms against every city in revolt, and before the end of the year 1858 the embers of the rebellion were finally stamped out. For these services the veteran chief received the title of Lord Clyde. Sir John Lawrence also was raised to the peerage with the title of Lord Lawrence.

It fell to the lot of Lord Canning, the Governor-General, both to suppress the mutiny and to introduce a new form of government. On 1st November, 1858, he published the royal proclamation which announced that the governing power of the East India Company was abolished, and that henceforth the Sovereign of England would be the supreme ruler of India. The title of Empress of India was not assumed until some years later. This change in the form of government was decidedly popular with the princes and people of India. It gave our Indian government new dignity in their eyes ; and it made our rule more acceptable, since they could now regard themselves as fellow-subjects with ourselves of the same personal Sovereign.

IV. HOW WE ACQUIRED OUR INSULAR POSSESSIONS IN ASIA

IF you take a map and trace out the course of a vessel from England to India, China, or Australia, you will be struck with the number of islands or peninsulas on

which flies the British flag. These places form so many stations on the chief trade-routes, they stand sentinel on the great ocean highways and serve for protection to our shipping, whilst affording facilities for our commerce. Some of them, like Gibraltar and Aden, are strong fortresses at the entrance of important seas ; some, like Malta and Hong Kong, have excellent harbours, strongly fortified, and serve as naval stations ; and all of them are most valuable as coaling-stations, without whose supplies our great liners and men-of-war would be as helpless giants. Some of these places are mere dots on the map, but from their position on the highway of nations they are of the greatest value. Nearly all of them in Asia have come into our possession during the present century. Let us see how the more important of our many islands in the Eastern Seas have been acquired.

Ceylon was first occupied by the Dutch, but as they sided with our enemies in the great French war, the British ejected them from all their settlements in that "pearl of the ocean." The interior still remained for some years under the rule of the King of Candy ; but, in consequence of a civil war between the Cingalese, as the natives are called, the whole island, to the relief of the inhabitants, fell under our sway (1815). Our easy conquest of the interior was in great measure due to the tyranny of the native king, and to the prosperity and good government which the Cingalese enjoyed in the maritime towns under British rule. As in Burma and elsewhere, so in Ceylon, our rule was welcomed on account of our power to maintain order, and our natural instinct "to be just and fear not."

England owes also much of her success in planting her flag on favoured spots, conveniently situated for war and commerce, to the patriotic enterprise of individual Englishmen. In gaining over the Cingalese, for instance, we were much aided by the learning, industry, and self-devotion of a man of singular genius called D'Oyly. So as to become thoroughly conversant with the language, manners, and customs of the natives he lived among them, assuming their dress and copying in every respect their habits and modes of life. He afterwards turned his knowledge and influence to account by compiling a code of laws in their language, and helping our officials to govern them in the light of his experience.

Then again we are indebted to Sir Stamford Raffles for the island of Singapore, which is situated at the southern extremity of the Malay Peninsula, on the direct route to China. He began life as a clerk in the India House, and displayed so much zeal and talent as to be chosen secretary, in 1805, to the Government of Penang, a small island in the Straits of Malacca. He devoted himself to the study of the Malay language, and gained much influence over the Malays. In 1818 he routed a nest of pirates from the island of Singapore, and there planted the British flag. Singapore, under the direction of its able founder, grew in three years from nothing to a town of 10,000 inhabitants, composed of all nations. It has now a population of 160,000, and is one of the great trade-exchanges of the world, a sort of receiving-house for the merchandise of all nations, and a "port of call" for all ships trading to the Far East. The English keep "open house" here for all nations;

for Singapore is a free port, in which all ships in time of peace are free to come and go on equal terms. It is the glory of England that she does not seek, like most other nations, any monopoly of trade, even in her own possessions. She holds open the gate, and invites the merchants of all nations to enter and trade on the same terms as her own people.

We have another fine example of the patriotic Englishman, with the spirit of adventure and the genius for rule, in the person of Sir James Brooke, to whom we owe our possessions in Borneo. On the death of his father, in 1830, he found himself the master of a large fortune, and this he resolved to use in putting down piracy in the Eastern Archipelago. Purchasing a schooner-yacht, and getting together an expert crew, he sailed for Sarawak, in Borneo. Finding the native governor at war with some rebellious chiefs, he lent his assistance to put down the revolt, and in return was placed in command of Sarawak, with the title of *Rajah*. The history of his adventures reads like a bit of romance from the age of Queen Elizabeth. All that can be given here is the fact that through his influence the British Government has been able to turn North Borneo and Sarawak into a protectorate of the Empire. Through him also we acquired Labuan, which is but a small island, but well placed on the trade route to the Far East, and fairly rich, it is said, in coal.

Hong Kong is another small island, but of the highest value. It was first occupied by the British during what is known as the "Opium War" (1841). We are not proud to remember how this island was acquired, being the result of Might, not Right. We are, however,

proud of the progress Hong Kong has made since we took it in hand. It affords, indeed, a remarkable example of the astuteness of the British race in seizing upon places of commanding situation and of their aptitude in adapting such places to their requirements.

Situated at the entrance of the Chinese Seas, it serves as one of the main gates on the highway of ships between India and China. Nothing could have been more uninviting than the aspect of Hong Kong as seen in its natural condition, without grain or fruit, and with scarce a level spot on which to build a street of houses. But it stood at a convenient spot to serve as an *entrepôt*, where merchants could store and exchange their goods under the protection of the British flag. It had also an excellent harbour, well suited as a naval station, and capable of being strongly fortified. Like Singapore, it was made a free port, that is, open to the ships and trade of all nations without customs' dues. When first occupied by the British, a few fishermen were its sole inhabitants ; there is now a population of a quarter of a million. Still more wonderful, it stands fourth in the whole world for the amount of shipping that passes through its waters. This is a result of which we may be justly proud.

Our latest acquisition in China is the port of Wei-hai-wei in the Gulf of Pechili. It is intended as a naval station for our war-ships in Northern China, where they may be needed for the protection of our commerce, and for the maintenance of our influence at the Court of Pekin. It is our desire to keep an "open door" in China for the commerce of all nations and not to permit any one to enjoy exclusive privileges.

CHAPTER XIII

Progress of the British Colonies

WE now propose to take a survey of the chief British Colonies, and to mark the progress they have made during the last half-century. We shall find that the conditions of success and the nature of the difficulties to be overcome have differed widely in the several colonies. In Canada are two European races, British and French, who had to learn the art of living and working harmoniously together. In New Zealand the colonists had to contend with a fierce, warlike race of natives, and to subdue them thoroughly, before it was possible to make any advance in peaceful occupations. In Australia the aborigines have given comparatively little trouble ; but there the free settlers had to deal with ruffianly fellows sent as convicts from the mother-country. In South Africa the problem was, and is, a still harder one ; for there the descendants of the old Dutch settlers are numerous, whilst the native populations greatly outnumber the white inhabitants, and, up to quite recent times, were always ready to fight, and fight bravely, on receiving little or no provocation.

We may well be proud of the great success which has, on the whole, crowned the efforts of our countrymen in spite of their difficulties. They have found ample scope

for the exercise of all the best qualities of our race: in dealing with the natives, a strong hand in war and just treatment in time of peace, and, at all times, the invariable practice of being true to one's word; in dealing with other European races, respect for their rights, their laws, and their religion; and in dealing with one another, readiness to give and take and to agree upon some practical course.

But, perhaps, the chief secret of our success in developing the colonies our forefathers planted has been the application of the principle of self-government. This has enabled the different colonies to rule their own life according to their own ideals and their own particular circumstances. It has also prevented friction between the mother country and her children across the seas, making the bonds between them, though soft as silk, yet strong as steel.

I. DOMINION OF CANADA

THE new era that began in Canada with the new constitution, granted in 1841, was marked by prosperity and territorial expansion. So great became the influx of British emigrants, that half a million made Canada their home in the course of the next quarter-century, and the population in the meantime nearly trebled itself. It was evident that a bright day had dawned for Canada, and that a great future for her might be reasonably anticipated. But how might Canada best realize her high hopes?

There was then no *Dominion of Canada* embracing the whole continent north of the United States with the

exception of Alaska. There were, besides the two Canadas, now called Quebec and Ontario, the maritime provinces of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island, and Newfoundland, all of which lived a separate life, unconnected by their mode of government with each other. The great North-West Territory was as yet unsettled, a mere hunting-ground for furs. British Columbia, which was peopled mainly by gold-diggers from California, was too remote from Canada for any intercourse between them. The question to be settled was this: How were these widely-separated states to be welded into one nation ?

The Governor of Canada, in his speech at the opening of the Canadian parliament in 1865, thus sets the alternative courses before them : " It remained with the public men of British North America to say whether the vast tract of country which they inhabited should be consolidated into a State, combining within its area all the elements of national greatness, or whether the several provinces of which it was constituted should remain in their present fragmentary and isolated condition, comparatively powerless for mutual aid, and incapable of undertaking their share of imperial responsibility."

The answer to this was the Confederation Act of 1867, by which the Dominion of Canada was constituted. The Dominion scheme only provided at first for the confederation of the two Canadian provinces with Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. A door was left open, however, for any of the other provinces to come in as soon as they were willing. In 1870 the North-West Territory was transferred from the Hudson Bay Company to the Dominion of Canada. And in the same

year Manitoba was cut out of this territory and admitted as a new province into the Confederation. British Columbia with Vancouver Island threw in her lot with the Dominion in 1871, and Prince Edward Island sought admission in 1873. The Dominion now embraces the whole of British North America, with the exception of Newfoundland, which still prefers to keep aloof.

Under the new constitution each province has its own local legislature, which manages its own affairs in its own way, whilst all matters of national concern are brought before the Federal or Dominion Parliament. This parliament consists of an Upper House styled the Senate, and a Lower House called the House of Commons. The former is composed of life-members nominated by the Crown, the latter of members elected by the people, and having full control of the public purse. The Sovereign is represented by the Governor-General, appointed by the Crown, and no laws are valid without his consent. He appoints the Lieutenant-Governors of the Provinces and the judges of the courts, being, like the Sovereign in England, the fountain of honour and justice. He is advised by a Cabinet, or Executive Council, who are responsible to the Federal Parliament for the advice they tender.

To avoid all jealousy on the part of the people of Ontario and Quebec, neither Montreal nor Toronto was selected as the capital of the Dominion, but the little town of Ottawa, on their common border. Since becoming the seat of Government, Ottawa has grown into an important city, and in the Houses of Parliament it possesses two of the finest edifices on the continent of America.

The advantage of a federal government soon became apparent in various ways. The defence of the country had never received adequate attention. It was now taken seriously in hand, and the words of Mr. Gladstone taken to heart on the duty of every free community to protect itself: "No community, which is not primarily charged with the ordinary business of its own defences, is really, or ever can be in the true sense of the word, a free community. The privileges of freedom and the burdens of freedom are absolutely associated together." This principle has been to a great extent recognised by our great colonies. In Canada the law now requires that every able-bodied man between sixteen and sixty be enrolled for the defence of the Dominion. There is only one town in all Canada that is now garrisoned by British troops, and that is Halifax, the chief naval station of Great Britain in North America.

The advantage of a federal government was also immediately seen when it was proposed to construct a railway right through the Dominion from Montreal to Vancouver. Here was a vast undertaking, which could never have been accomplished without a central government having authority over the whole Dominion. The Canadian Pacific Railway, as it is called, was commenced in 1880 and finished in 1885, although measuring 3,000 miles.

Thus the Dominion of Canada, which now stretches from ocean to ocean, is linked together by the iron road, and its most distant parts brought into easy communication with each other by rail and wire. Canada has everything that ought to make a nation great and prosperous. The fisheries of her maritime provinces, the

timber of her ancient forests, the granaries of the prairie region, the ranches of the Rockies, and the marvellous wealth of Klondyke, together with her unrivalled network of water-ways—all combine to give Canada the promise of a high place among the great nations of the world, and to make us proud to remember that she is staunch and loyal to the British name and nation. Hear what a Canadian poetess has sung:—

For we have British hearts and British blood,
That leap up, eager, when the danger calls !

* * * *

Nor do we ask but for the right to keep
Unbroken, still, the cherished filial tie
That binds us to the distant, sea-girt isle
Our fathers loved, and taught their sons to love,
As the dear home of freemen, brave and true,
And loving *Honour* more than ease or gold.

II. DISCOVERY OF GOLD IN AUSTRALIA

IN 1851 occurred an event which greatly accelerated the progress of Australia, though at first it disorganised the whole industry of the country, and brought into it lawless gangs of adventurers from every quarter. This was the discovery of gold, near Bathurst, in New South Wales. At the news of this discovery thousands hastened over the Blue Mountains from all parts of the colony. The road from Sydney to Bathurst, a distance of 150 miles, was covered for months with a motley crowd bringing pack-horses and every kind of vehicle, laden with supplies, and all the necessaries of a camping outfit. All were in a state of feverish excitement, which was raised still higher by the news that an Australian

black, employed as a shepherd fifty miles from Bathurst, had found a nugget weighing 100 pounds of solid gold. The news of this "rush" for gold had hardly reached the adjoining colony of Victoria, when it became known that there was a richer gold-field at Ballarat in their own country.

The "gold fever" seized upon the Victorians, and in a few weeks Melbourne was almost deserted by its male inhabitants. Workshops were left without workmen, ships without crews, and houses without tenants. Business came to a standstill, and even schools were closed for want of teachers. Harvest was approaching ; the sheep-shearing was at hand ; but no labourers could be found. Then followed a rush of men of all classes from all parts of the world, including thousands of released or escaped convicts from Tasmania. As soon as Ballarat had drawn together a tumultuous throng, discoveries at Sandhurst and elsewhere diverted the eager crowd, all in wild excitement, in the hope of growing rapidly rich. Of those who "tried their luck" at the diggings the majority fared ill. But a few became suddenly rich. One miner at Ballarat hit upon the largest mass of gold ever found. It is known as the "Welcome Stranger," and was worth upwards of £8,000.

Whilst the towns were abandoned, or inhabited mainly by women and children, there grew up round the gold-diggings new towns of canvas, in which drunkenness, gambling, and vice ran riot. The Government of Victoria, deserted by all its subordinate officials, found itself unable to deal successfully with the administration of law and order in these encampments of promiscuous humanity, in which the lawless and reck-

less bore a predominant part. The most difficult task of all was to enforce the payment of a license-fee. All the waste lands of the colony belonged to the Crown, and it was the duty of the Governor to demand the payment of a fee for permission to search thereon for gold.

In New South Wales the Government was sufficiently strong to enforce this payment; but in Victoria the authorities were weaker and the diggers vastly more numerous. Consequently, all attempted to dig for gold without payment, and a large proportion succeeded in the attempt. The Governor, conscious of his weakness, endeavoured to propitiate the miners by reducing the license-fee, but the concession only stimulated them to resist all demands. The men at Ballarat were the most violent in their opposition to the government claims, and their camp was the constant scene of riot and disorder. At last there was open insurrection.

A section of the miners determined to resist by force of arms the collection of any license-fee whatever. More than a thousand entrenched themselves at Eureka, near Ballarat, and there the manufacture of pikes went on briskly. But before time was given to make efficient preparation, they were attacked by a small force, consisting of 100 mounted men and 176 soldiers and police. The entrenchment was carried at daybreak by the little disciplined force, and a body of men who had taken arms was killed before the bugle to cease firing was sounded. All persons found within the entrenchments were captured and afterwards brought to trial. But public feeling was so strongly on the side of the miners, or the juries were so much in fear of the consequences of an honest verdict, that they were all acquitted.

Not only did the Government of Victoria fail to make a great profit by the enormous gold deposits on the public lands, but the expenses of administration, in the extraordinary circumstances, rose far in excess of the revenue, and threatened to ruin the colony. The Home Government recognised its critical position, and made over the proceeds of the licenses, which legally belonged to the Crown, to the public service of the colony, suggesting that instead of a license-fee a duty might be levied on the gold exported, or a royalty demanded on the gold actually raised. This generous conduct on the part of the Government at home did much to foster the feelings of loyalty and attachment to the Crown and mother-country. A commission was appointed to consider the whole subject of the administration of the gold-fields, and in accordance with its recommendations the license-fee was abolished, and an export duty on gold substituted. Thus, the tax fell on the successful only, and on them in proportion to their success. This arrangement gave satisfaction to all concerned.

In less than three months the Governor was able to report that "the duty has been easily collected, and a greater revenue than was anticipated has been derived, whilst everywhere on the gold-fields good order and quiet has prevailed."

So rich is Australia in gold that mining for this metal has ever since remained one of the regular industries of the country. The value of the Australian gold obtained in forty years from its first discoveries, in 1851, amounts to the extraordinary sum of £300,000,000. Victoria has yielded by far the largest amount. New

South Wales ranks second, and Queensland third, as a gold colony. And now it is probable that West Australia, which has lagged behind the sister colonies, will yet flourish ; for, in 1892, a valuable gold-field was discovered within her borders also. Although South Australia is not one of the gold colonies, it has much profited from the treasures of her rich neighbour. Many who hastened in the first rush for gold from this colony to Victoria, not only sent home large remittances to their families, but on their return invested their money in land near their old homes. Thus Victorian gold purchased South Australian land, and gave a great impetus to the prosperity of the colony.

The importance to Australia of the existence of gold within her territory is far greater than the worth of the gold itself. It has been the means of bringing to her shores hundreds of thousands of enterprising men, who on leaving the gold-fields settled down in the country to find a livelihood in the cultivation of the land, or in some other useful employment. During the ten years that followed the finding of the first nugget the population of Australia nearly trebled itself. Victoria, especially, has made rapid progress. The population of Victoria, when gold was first picked up at Ballarat, numbered only 72,000 ; now, near the end of the century, it amounts to $1\frac{1}{4}$ millions. Melbourne, its capital, which had no existence when Queen Victoria came to the throne, now boasts a population of 300,000, forming, in fact, the largest city in the Southern Hemisphere.

III. DEVELOPMENT OF NEW ZEALAND

WHEN, in 1853, Sir George Grey resigned his office as Governor of New Zealand, he left the colony, as previously said, in a state of actual and progressive welfare. But on arriving, in 1861, to resume his old office, he found the whole country in a state of unrest, and some of the natives in arms against the Government. The Maoris had awoke to the fact that the settlers were increasing very rapidly, and now outnumbered themselves, whilst their lands were continually passing into the hands of the stranger. The improvident native readily sold his land to the settler at a cheap rate, and then repented of his folly. Alarmed at the prospect of ruin to their people, the Maori chiefs banded together for the purpose of resisting the sale of land. They elected one of their number as head of the league, and gave him the title of the Maori King. "Let us," they said, "become united and our people one, like the strangers."

This "king movement," as it was called, had developed into armed rebellion before the arrival of Sir George Grey. He did all he could, short of acknowledging the Maori king, to regain native confidence and restore peace. But the Maoris were shrewd enough to see that if the strangers were to be dispossessed of their lands, or a check put on immigration, the sooner the attempt was made, the more likely it was to prove successful. Nor was their case so hopeless as our experience in dealing with semi-civilised races elsewhere might lead us to suppose. They occupied almost inaccessible strongholds amid forests and mountains and

swamps ; they could subsist on potatoes and fern-roots ; they could make sudden sallies and retire as suddenly into their fastnesses ; they could in a few days build *pahs*, or palisaded fortresses, protected by rifle-pits, which could only be captured with great loss of life ; and they were as brave as any warriors in the world.

Our men fought with their usual pluck and energy, but they suffered many reverses, though in the end successful. As an example of the warlike spirit of the Maoris, let us take the British attack on the *pah* at Orakau. General Cameron, being aware that there were many women and children within the *pah*, called upon its defenders to surrender and their lives would be spared. Their reply was that they would "fight for ever and ever." And when the general offered to let their women and children pass through the ranks of his soldiers unharmed, they answered, "The women will fight as well as we." During three days' investment of Orakau, all that its defenders had to subsist on was a few raw potatoes, without a drop of water, whilst grape-shot, bullets, and grenades poured into the enclosure. At last, the Maoris in a body made a desperate *sortie*, and the majority escaped through our cordon of troops.

The war continued, with few intermissions, until 1870, the whole conduct and burden of the war during the last four years falling on the colonists and their native allies. The brave Maoris were at last convinced that their cause was hopeless. They consented to live at peace on the terms offered, and have ever since quietly submitted to the inevitable. Their whole number is now little more than 40,000, and most of these live in the North Island.

Whilst the settlers in the North Island had been obliged to abandon their ploughs and shoulder their rifles, those in the sister island were free to follow their peaceful avocations, the natives there being few and widely dispersed. During the ten years of the war the colonists in the South Island had made wonderful progress, owing to their exemption from war, and to the fortunate discovery of gold, in Otago. The white population of South Island had in those ten years risen from 22,000 to upwards of 100,000. And we may generally take the increase of population as a good criterion of material progress. During the ten years that followed the war the European population of both islands, in consequence of the stream of immigration, almost doubled itself, whilst the Maoris remained either stationary or slightly retrogressive.

Steady progress has been made by New Zealand since the end of the war, in 1870, and is due, partly, to the advantages offered by the country itself, and, partly, to the wise measures taken by the Colonial Government to develop its resources and to attract emigrants. The public debt of New Zealand had become heavy in consequence of the war; nevertheless, it was judged wise to raise ten millions, by means of a loan, for public purposes. These purposes were threefold: to give facilities for communication both within and without the islands by means of roads, railways, telegraphs, and coasting-vessels; to purchase lands from the natives whenever they were willing to sell; and to offer special advantages to immigrants of the right stamp. British capitalists were found to have such confidence in the future prosperity of the colony as to be ready to invest

their money in New Zealand stock. In the ten years between 1870 and 1880, New Zealand was in this way enabled to take the place which properly belonged to it in the industrial development of the Southern Hemisphere, and to lay the foundation of a prosperous future.

So thoroughly English is this colony that, in its commerce, only six or seven per cent., whether of imports or exports, benefits foreign countries. The wealth of New Zealand consists principally in wool, gold, wheat, kauri gum, frozen meat, and rabbit skins. So prolific are rabbits in a new country, like New Zealand, that they have in some districts proved as great a pest as swarms of locusts. In the course of seven years, as many as seventy million rabbit-skins have been exported, in value about half a million. But this is but a poor set-off to the millions lost by the ravages of the apparently harmless rabbit. The discovery of the method of keeping meat frozen in cold air-chambers during the passage of a vessel through the tropics has been a great boon to New Zealand. The amount of frozen meat exported since the first cargo in 1881 has continued to increase, and now forms an important source of revenue to the colony, whilst helping the mother-country to feed her teeming population.

IV. EXPANSION OF BRITISH SOUTH AFRICA

OF the self-governed colonies now under review, there remain to be visited those of South Africa, which has the reputation of having played the part of *Rip Van Winkle*. Colonised by the Dutch in 1652, it seemed for the next two hundred years to slumber. It began to rub its eyes when the first shipload of British emigrants landed in

1820, but it only fully awoke when, in 1870, news came of the discovery of a rich diamond field in the neighbourhood of Kimberley. Up to this time the progress of Cape Colony was like that of the ox-waggon, the national vehicle of South Africa. But with the discovery of diamonds the colony began to go ahead at a pace more suggestive of the steam-engine. Men and capital were attracted into the country, and soon quickened into vigorous life all the industries of the colony. Farmers obtained a good market, commerce grew apace, railways were speedily laid down.

It is now known that the "blue ground" in which the diamonds are found is nothing but a stream of volcanic mud, filling up the craters and pipes of four extinct volcanoes in the desert region round Kimberley. So rich is this "blue ground" in diamonds that the mines have yielded, since 1870, an average revenue of between two and three millions per annum.

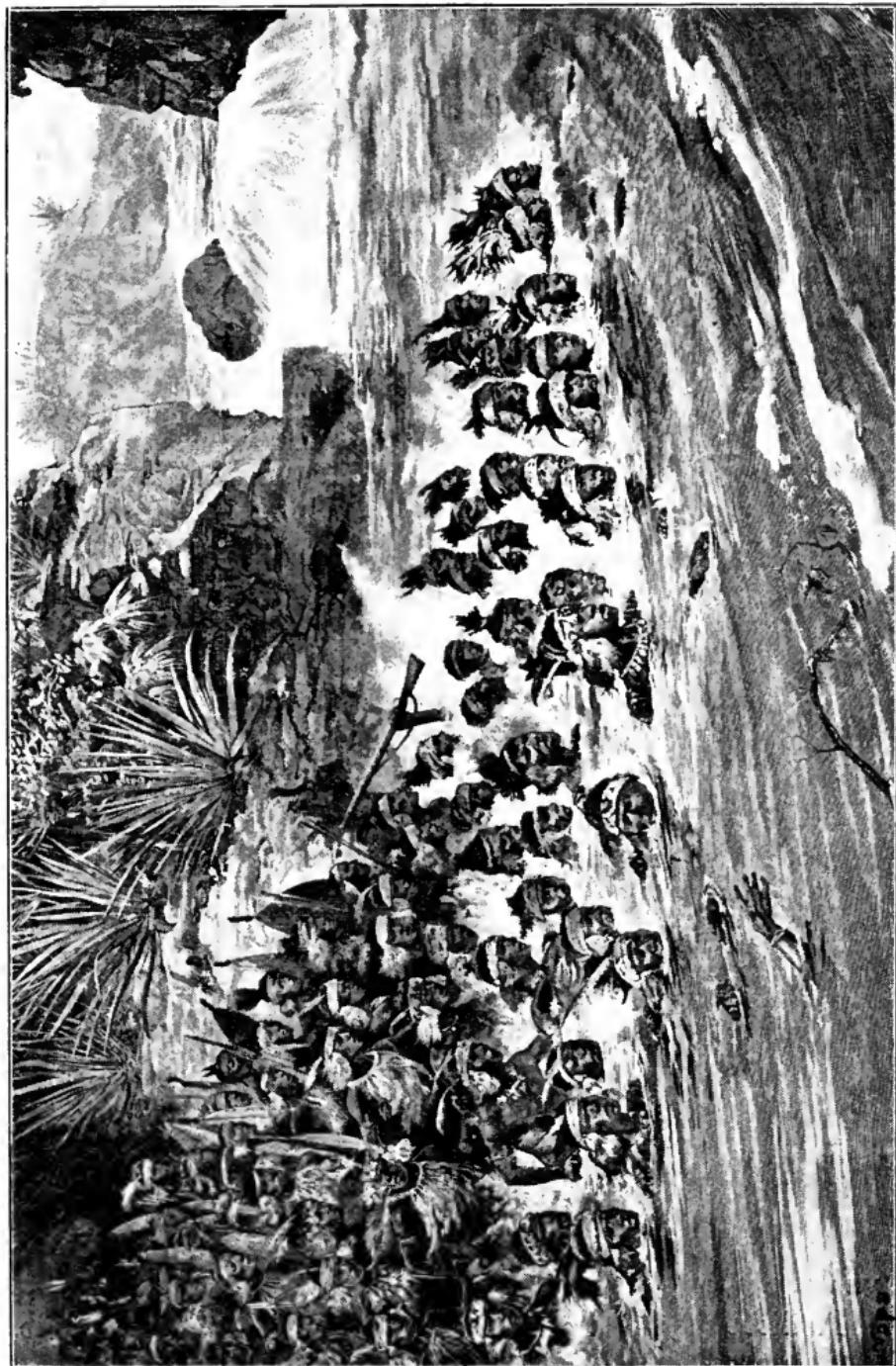
The progress which Cape Colony was making, in consequence of this source of wealth, was at times retarded by wars with the natives. The Kaffirs were not finally subdued till 1878. The struggle ended in the absorption by Cape Colony of all the native territories (with the exception of Basutoland) which once separated its Eastern border from Natal. Basutoland is under the direct rule of the Imperial Government, by whose interference it was kept out of the hands of the Orange Free State, in response to the prayer of the Basuto chief, "Let me and my people rest and live under the large folds of the flag of England."

No sooner had we succeeded in reducing the Kaffirs to submission, and establishing firm peace in Cape

Colony, than the peace of Natal was threatened by the Zulus, a nation of savage warriors, at that time under the rule of Ketshwayo. When remonstrated with by the Governor of Natal, in respect to the murder of some Zulu women, he replied : "Why do the white people start at nothing ? I have not yet begun. I have yet to kill. It is the custom of our nation, and I shall not depart from it. My people will not listen unless they are killed." Ketshwayo had an army of 25,000 swaggering "braves," whose one pleasure in life was to kill. This "man-slaying machine" was a standing peril to Natal, which was separated from Zululand only by the river Tugela. No one could sleep in peace and security within a day's run of the Zulu border. Had the Zulu monarch chosen to cross that river, the whites in Natal would have been exterminated ; for they only numbered 25,000, and were living in the midst of 300,000 natives similar in colour, race, and religion to the people of Ketshwayo.

To save Natal from attack, it was resolved to carry war into the enemy's country, and to destroy, if possible, his "man-slaying machine." A British force crossed the Tugela at a ford called Rorke's Drift (1879). A great disaster befell a division of our troops left to guard the camp at Isandlana, two miles from Rorke's Drift. Happily, at this ford, a small detachment had been left to guard the passage. The command of this post was in the hands of Lieutenants Chard and Bromhead, whose names will long be remembered for the heroic defence they made, with a force of 104 men, against a savage host of 3,000 warriors who had come exultant with victory from the camp of Isandlana.

By this handful of troops stationed round an old



ZULUS ON THE WAR-PATH.

mission-house, with no better wall of defence in front of them than bags of mealies afforded, the enemy were kept at bay all night. With the first light of morning they retreated, on hearing of the approach of the British main-body, leaving three hundred of their number lying dead. Of the gallant defenders seventeen were killed and ten wounded. By the undaunted resolution of this little band of heroes Natal was saved from invasion and massacre. No sight was ever more welcome to the eyes of a distressed general than that of the Union Jack still floating over that old mission-house, as our army came within sight of Rorke's Drift, after passing through the shambles of Isandlana, where their comrades in their absence had been slain.

After a large force had landed from England, the invasion of Zululand was renewed, and a pitched battle fought at Ulundi, brought the war to a successful close. Ketshwayo was captured and sent as a prisoner to Cape Town. His country was ultimately divided into two parts, one part being incorporated with the Transvaal, the other with Natal. A further expansion of British territory took place in 1885, when Bechuanaland, a vast country west of the Transvaal, was declared a British Protectorate. Its southern portion, between the Orange river and the Molopo, was formed into a Crown colony under the name of British Bechuanaland. This addition to the empire was important, not for the value of the country itself, but because it prevented the Germans or the Boers from appropriating it, and thus kept open the approach to the fertile country, north of the Transvaal, for our people in Cape Colony.

A discovery was now made which turned all eyes to

South Africa as the land paved with gold. In the west of the Transvaal, in a district known as the Rand, gold reefs were discovered, in 1886, of unusual richness. In an incredibly short space of time the town of Johannesburg sprang up on the gold-fields, and a stream of adventurers came pouring into this new El Dorado. Railways were at once laid down connecting Johannesburg with the other important trade centres of South Africa. The output of gold continued to increase, and, in 1895, its value for the year was almost £8,000,000. By the end of that year the population of Johannesburg exceeded 100,000 persons. Many important results have grown out of this gold industry, but the most remarkable was the impetus given to exploration and settlement in the country north of the Transvaal, now usually known as *Rhodesia*.

V. RHODESIA AND ITS PIONEERS

THE country north of the Transvaal had long been known as a region which in olden times had been ransacked for gold. Here, it was thought by some, was the land of Ophir from which King Solomon drew his supplies of gold. This region was now occupied by the warlike Matabeles, and by the peaceful Mashonas. Their country was soon visited by gold-seekers, after the discovery of gold in the Rand district, and a treaty was made with Lobengula, king of the Matabeles, by which was obtained the sole right to search for, and work, the minerals within his territory. Under the inspiriting influence of Mr. Cecil Rhodes, the South Africa Company was formed for taking advan-

tage of this permission ; and, in 1890, a charter was obtained from the Crown authorising the Company to make treaties, acquire territories, and exercise therein the powers of government. In fact, the South Africa Company, by this charter, held a position similar to that formerly held by the East India Company.

The march of the pioneer force of the Charter Company through a roadless country, extending from British Bechuanaland to the great eastern plateau in Mashonaland, is one that must have tried the nerves of the boldest. They had to march a thousand miles, and to pass through the country of a warlike and powerful race of savages—the dreaded Matabeles, whose young warriors were eager to flesh their assegais in the bodies of the white strangers. The pioneer force consisted of 700 picked Europeans and 150 natives, who acted as scouts. In some parts a road had to be cut for miles through the thick forest. Not only were scouts always out, but while half the men used their axes, the other half on horseback held their comrades' steeds in readiness and carried their rifles. Every evening the camp was surrounded by a zareba of thorn trees. Fortunately, the whereabouts of the expedition was never known until it reached Mashonaland. After a journey of two months and a half, the brave pioneers reached their destination, and soon the British flag was flying over Fort Salisbury (1890).

The pioneers now set to work ; some armed themselves with prospecting picks and went off in search of gold ; some examined the agricultural capabilities of the country ; others manned the forts which had been erected at Victoria, Charter, and Salisbury. The pioneers sent home

a favourable report of the resources of the country, and of its suitability for colonization, but all agreed that little could be done in mining without machinery, and that such machinery as they needed could not reach them without a railway. Steps were at once taken to begin a narrow-gauge railway from the port of Beira, on the east coast, in the direction of Fort Salisbury. Arrangements were also made with the Mashonas to give their help in cultivating the farms and herding the settlers' cattle on the land around the Company's forts.

Before two years had passed, it was found necessary to make war on the Matabeles. They persisted in killing Mashonas in the employ of the settlers, whose cattle they killed and whose stores they set on fire. Outrage followed outrage, until it became quite clear that the Matabeles must be crushed before any progress could be made. Their king, Lobengula, was either unwilling or unable to restrain his young "braves," who regarded themselves as invincible.

The war that followed (1893) is one of the shortest and most decisive in our history. The credit for managing the whole business is due to Dr. Jameson, who was in charge of the whole colony. It was an anxious time for our men, who, it must be remembered, were not regular soldiers. Lobengula had upwards of 10,000 warriors to oppose to our small force of 800 men. The enemy were brave, their country crossed by craggy heights, abounding in caverns, and the rainy season was approaching. But in four weeks from the first advance, the little force, armed with modern weapons and faultlessly led, had, with small loss, conquered the most sanguinary and powerful people of South Africa.

The last decisive engagement was fought near Bulawayo, the Matabele capital. The enemy foolishly hurled themselves against our columns when some were laagared, the rest entrenched. After an hour's carnage, during which our machine-guns played upon the enemy, they began to retreat, with the loss of 1,000 killed and wounded. A day or two later a loud report rent the air, and huge columns of smoke were observed to rise from Bulawayo. The king had fled after ordering his magazine to be blown up. After the capture of Bulawayo, a patrol was sent forward, under Major Wilson, to pursue and capture Lobengula.

Wilson's party overtook the fugitive king, but found his bodyguard too strong for them to overpower, and were obliged to retire. On receiving a message to this effect, the main body hastened forwards. But they were arrested by the river, which through recent rains had risen too much for them to cross. Meanwhile, Major Wilson and his men, on the other side of the river, found their retreat cut off by a large body of the enemy. The troopers, seeing themselves encircled by the Matabes, dismounted and formed a ring, with their horses outwards. As the horses fell, they used their bodies for a barricade, firing as they lay on the ground. In the centre of the group stood Major Wilson, and directed their efforts. So calm and steady were the men in that last hour of their lives that not even were the wounded left uncared for. One man, we are told, took off his shirt and, tearing it into strips, bound up his comrades' wounds. The men fell, one after the other, but as long as ammunition lasted the survivors kept the enemy at bay. Not a man escaped to tell how his comrades had



MAJOR WILSON'S LAST STAND.

died. That we have since learnt from the Matabeles themselves.

Lobengula made good his escape, but he died soon afterwards of fever, and his kingdom passed under British rule. The new territory, comprising both Matabeleland and Mashonaland, is named *Rhodesia*, in honour of Cecil Rhodes, to whose marvellous energy and enterprise the possession of this most promising country is mainly due. To this great patriot England owes the right to extend her empire from the Transvaal to the Zambesi, and even far beyond it to Lake Tanganyika.

The future fortunes of this vast region none can tell. But the great civilizer, the steam-engine, has already appeared to the wondering eyes of the natives in Rhodesia. The railway, measuring 1,350 miles from Cape Town, has already been opened at Bulawayo, and is now being pushed on through Salisbury, to the port Beira, on the east coast. Already the telegraph wire has been carried across the Zambesi towards Lake Tanganyika, and before long the grand project of Cecil Rhodes to bring Cape Town within speaking distance of Cairo will be an accomplished fact.

VI. THE SCRAMBLE FOR AFRICA

THE labours of Livingstone, Stanley, and others in exploring Africa have cast a new light over the "Dark Continent," and shown that its interior is not a dreary, uninhabited desert, but a region abounding in fertile tracts of land, broad pastures, and virgin forests. This discovery has led to quite a scramble between ourselves and other European Powers for the possession or protectorate of such parts as are unoccupied by civilized

peoples. Almost the whole continent has been plotted out among various European nations, who have so far been able to arrange among themselves, without recourse to arms, what portions shall be assigned to each.

Great Britain has come out of the scramble with her usual good fortune. Not only has she secured the right to dominate about two millions and a quarter square miles of the total area, but she has cause to congratulate herself on having secured those parts which are most suitable for her people to occupy as permanent homes, especially the region already spoken of under the name of Rhodesia.

Some of our most promising possessions are in the vicinity of the great lakes in the south-east of the continent. The worth of any possession depends very much upon the facilities for communication. By means of steamers on the lakes it is easy for our merchants and missionaries to keep in touch with a large population in the country round. Both Lake Nyassa and Victoria Nyanza are now navigated by several steamers, but there is not yet any railroad between the lakes and the coast. This want, however, is being supplied. The progress we make in appropriating and developing the regions to which we lay claim may be measured, as time goes on, by the number of steamers we put on the lakes and the mileage of the railways we construct. Steam is the chief handmaid of civilization.

In 1890 we came to an agreement with Germany, by which, in return for the small island of Heligoland, off the mouth of the Elbe, the island of Zanzibar was left exclusively in our hands. By the same agreement also a protectorate has been established over British East

Africa. This territory has a coast-line 400 miles in length, and extends into the interior as far as the Victoria Nyanza, including within its range the populous kingdom of Uganda. A railway is now being constructed to connect this important region with Mombasa, a port with the finest harbour on the east side of Africa.

An agreement has also quite recently (1898) been made with France as to the exact limits of our territory in West Africa. There the Royal Niger Company has done a good work for the Empire by its active measures in acquiring territorial and commercial rights from the native chiefs. The countries under this Company, in the extensive and well-watered region of the Niger, are extremely fertile, and many of the cities are nests of industrial life, notwithstanding the wars that have from time to time devastated whole districts, and the human sacrifices that are constantly being offered up where the old pagan chiefs still rule unchecked.

It will be understood that most of these large regions in Africa which have been marked out as British protectorates and "spheres of influence" are not yet integral parts of our Empire. They may be coloured red on a map of Africa, but as yet the larger portion has not come under our effective rule. They have, however, been marked out as spheres for British enterprise and British capital to operate upon. The possibilities arising from the efforts already made to open up the interior of Africa to British influence and civilization are immeasurable, but how far they will be realized only time can reveal.

VII. ENGLAND AND EGYPT

THOUGH Egypt forms legally no part of the British Empire, yet practically it is in the position of a Protectorate of the Empire. The Khedive is the reigning prince of Egypt, but he rules by the advice of the British minister at his Court. In the streets of Cairo, his capital, the uniform of the British soldier is a familiar sight, for British troops occupy the citadel. South of Egypt, and formerly conquered by it, is a great region, on the Upper Nile, known as the Soudan, the capital of which is Khartoum. Over the ruins of this city the flags of England and Egypt now float, and when these flags were recently hoisted there, it was commonly said, "Now Gordon is avenged." What is the meaning of all this? How came we to be in Egypt, and in what way is the name of Gordon associated with Khartoum?

Egypt is a country in which we have vital interests on account of its position in relation to India; for since the construction of the Suez Canal (1869) the ruler of Egypt holds the key to the shortest route to India, and it is consequently most important that that key should virtually be in our hands. When then, in 1882, the Egyptians rose in rebellion against the Khedive, with the express object of having all foreigners dismissed from his service, England felt bound in its own interests to interfere. After the fortress of Alexandria had been bombarded by our fleet, and the Egyptian army had been utterly routed by Sir Garnet Wolseley at Tel-el-Kebir, Cairo threw open its gates to our victorious troops, and the rebellion was at an end.

But momentous consequences followed, and these

were of opposite character in Egypt and the Soudan respectively. Whilst in Egypt itself a beneficent rule was established, under British auspices, with peaceful progress and prosperity as its natural fruits, the floods of barbarism and anarchy rolled unchecked over the Soudan, in spite of the Egyptian garrisons holding Khartoum and other important places in that country. About the time of the rebellion in Egypt, a religious fanatic, known as the Mahdi, unfurled his black banner and called upon the wild tribes of the Soudan to make war on all who refused to receive him as an inspired prophet. As the British Government did not consider that the interests of England justified them in fighting the Mahdists of the Soudan, they induced General Gordon to undertake the perilous task of withdrawing the Egyptian garrisons.

The name of Gordon has become a household word, a name we cannot recall without a thrill of admiration, for it speaks to us of one who feared God and naught besides, whose one aim it was to help the helpless, to stand up for the oppressed, and to put down tyranny. He was absolutely unselfish, having no ends of his own to serve in anything he undertook. As long as England is a nation the name of Gordon will be a tower of strength to every Englishman who fights in the cause of freedom and humanity. Gordon may not have done anything directly to promote the *Growth* of the British Empire, but he has done incalculably much to promote its *Greatness* by the moral influence which his memory has had, and will have, on the character of our country-men.

We all know that Gordon, on reaching Khartoum,

was hemmed in by the forces of the Mahdi, and that the attempt to rescue him failed owing to the delay of our Government in sending the relieving army. For ten long weary months the defenders of Khartoum, inspired by the courage and devotion of their noble chief, had kept the hordes of the enemy at bay. Had they known that help was so near—for our advanced guard was only two days off—they might have found strength to hold out a little longer. But when, in the early dawn, on the 26th January, 1885, the Mahdists made their final assault, the garrison, through their weakness from want of food, was unable to offer any effectual resistance. Gordon fell from a musket-shot. His last words entered in his journal, a month previously, will ever be treasured in our memory : “I am quite happy, thank God ; and, like Lawrence, I have tried to do my duty.”

The British troops were recalled, and the Soudan was abandoned to the Mahdi, who proceeded at once to exterminate all who did not embrace him and his religion with apparent fervour. Thus in a short space of time the forces of barbarism swept over the Soudan to the gates of Egypt, then situated at the “second cataract” on the borders of the Nubian desert, and as far eastward as Suakim, a port on the Red Sea, which was garrisoned in our own interests by troops from India.

But the Mahdi was not content to leave us in possession of even Suakim. His lieutenant, Osman Digna, suffered three severe defeats before giving up the struggle. The last occasion was signalized by the fact that the troops on our side were composed partly of British soldiers, partly of native regiments from India,

and partly of a contingent of troops from Australia. It was a great satisfaction to Englishmen to find that their fellow-countrymen in Australia were desirous in this way of defending the interests of the Empire, and of proclaiming to the world at large that in any future attack on the mother-country they would find her sons in the colonies fighting shoulder to shoulder with her troops in defence of the Empire.

Happily the Mahdists, or Dervishes, were not to be left in permanent possession of the Soudan. "No good," said Gordon, "can be done here until the Mahdi is smashed." Thank God that we have seen this done, although we have had to wait more than thirteen years for this happy consummation. Meanwhile the Mahdi died, and his lieutenant succeeded him with the title of Khalifa.

During those thirteen years of waiting, by the patient, persistent efforts and steady purpose of the British officers in the service of the Khedive, an Egyptian army was created capable of fighting by the side of British troops against the dreaded Dervishes, who always think more of victory than death. Bearing in mind the character of the foe to be beaten, the wide deserts that intervene between Cairo and Khartoum, and the vast distance—no less than 1,200 miles by rail and river—that separates the two cities, we see at once that the reconquest of the Soudan was a most formidable undertaking.

But the wisdom and foresight of the Sirdar, Sir Herbert Kitchener, were equal to the undertaking. That wisdom and foresight were shown in preparing for all emergencies, in advancing to the distant goal by mode-

rate stages, in constructing a railway across the desert to the mouth of the Atbara for the transport of his stores, and in collecting an army sufficiently strong, and in its composition sufficiently various, for the work to be done. The Sirdar may be said to have marched to certain victory, so superior were the weapons in the hands of his troops, so perfect was the organization of his fighting-machine, and the arrangements necessary for keeping it in good working order.

The final victory was won, as we all know, within sight of Khartoum, after a battle in which the arms and discipline of an Anglo-Egyptian army proved more than a match for the frenzied fury and reckless bravery of the Khalifa's dauntless host (September 2nd, 1898). Let the Sirdar himself sum up the fruits of the victory :—

“The result of the battle is the practical annihilation of the Khalifa's army, the consequent extinction of Mahdism in the Soudan, and the submission of the whole country formerly ruled under Egyptian authority. This has reopened vast territories to the benefits of peace, civilization, and good government.

“On September 4th the British and Egyptian flags were hoisted with due ceremony on the walls of the ruined Palace of Khartoum, close to the spot where General Gordon fell; and this event is looked upon by the rejoicing populations as marking the commencement of a new era of peace and prosperity for their unfortunate country.”

Gordon is now said to be avenged; but the only way to avenge the death of such a man as Gordon is to use the power we have gained to do what Gordon would have done, and that is to put down slavery in the Soudan, to civilize the natives, and, if possible, to evangelize them.

CHAPTER XIV

Our Queen and Country

OUR task is well-nigh done. We have traced the growth of our world-wide empire from the days of Queen Elizabeth to the days of Queen Victoria. We have marked the noble and valiant deeds of the men by whom that empire has been founded and built up, and felt our hearts glow with feelings of patriotism and pride as we reflected on what our countrymen have dared and done for the land that gave them birth. Our story is not only concerned with the growth of the empire and its vast extent, but with its greatness, and that is to be measured not merely by its power and dimensions, but by the amount of real good which our nation has wrought in the world.

When we take into account what England has done in civilizing the barbarous, in bringing order out of anarchy, in championing the cause of the oppressed, in teaching men how to gain and enjoy true freedom, in a word, how to govern themselves, then we see what a noble part England, with her great power, has played in the world ; then we see that her true glory does not consist so much in the triumphs of war, in the extent of her territory and the number of her people, as in the blessings which she has showered upon the millions of men that live under the protection of her flag. The

greatness of England, then, must be measured not only by the extent of her power, but by the degree in which she has exercised that power in promoting the happiness and welfare of all who owe and own allegiance to our Sovereign.

We have, in the course of our story, spoken of the great men who have contributed greatly to the growth and power of our empire, but certainly no one has had a larger share in advancing the true glory of that empire than the illustrious lady who has now ruled over the destinies of England for upwards of sixty years. Her influence for good has been simply immeasurable. Reigning in the hearts of her people, her conspicuous example of home life in its ideal form, as well as her unfaltering devotion to the arduous duties of her high calling as Queen, must have exercised an inspiring influence upon all ranks of her loving subjects, both in Great and Greater Britain.

This mighty influence of the Queen over the whole empire was brought home to us in a striking way on the occasion of her great Jubilee. Not only men of our own blood, who have carried British enterprise and industry into far-away Colonies, but the conquered races also whom we have converted from foes into friends, all alike vied with each other in paying eager homage to the Queen and in assuring her of their devotion and loyalty. No one with a true British heart beheld that marvellous procession on "Jubilee Day," composed of representatives of all nations, colonies, and races that live in peace and security under the ample folds of the British flag, without being thrilled with loyal enthusiasm and a not ignoble pride for his Queen and country.

Even foreigners, though often envious of our unparalleled success, sometimes speak in enthusiastic terms of England's greatness and her high mission in the world. A German editor, for instance, thus generously writes on this subject :—

“England has interests to defend over the whole earth ; her ships cruise in all oceans, and the red coats of her soldiers are to be seen in every continent. She fights in all quarters of the globe, often under the greatest difficulties, and constantly with comparatively insignificant military forces, yet almost invariably holds her ground ; and, indeed, not only defends what she has, but is incessantly adding to her possessions. This manifestation of universal power, this defence and extension of a world-wide empire, gives fresh proof of the invincible and unbroken vigour and vitality of the Anglo-Saxon race. England is still a distinguished pioneer of civilization, and the enterprises undertaken to extend her power and dominion also promote indirectly the interests of humanity and civilization. The British sword is always followed by the British plough and ship, and it is this which justifies her forward policy and establishes its success.”

Such testimony from a foreign pen is a sign that England has not solely and selfishly sought her own interests, and justifies us in asserting that she has shared all her privileges with her own children in the colonies, and striven to make her rule a blessing to the subject races within her dominions, whilst keeping an “open door” for the commerce of the world instead of seeking a monopoly of trade wherever her flag is planted. She claims to be free and the mother of free nations and the friend of freedom all the world over. This is her glory, and entitles her, if not to the admiration of her rivals, certainly to the love and loyalty of all who live in peace and security beneath her flag.

No Englishman can read the history of his country and mark the conspicuous, and, in many respects, the noble part it has played in the world, without feeling his heart kindle with that love and devotion for his fatherland which constitutes true patriotism. But the Briton's patriotism is often too narrow in its scope. We are not citizens of one little state, our dominions stretch far and wide. Those who have left our shores to plant new homes across the seas are still our brothers and share our name and fortune. Our patriotism should take so wide a sweep as to embrace all who stand beneath the British flag. It should lead us to take a deep interest in the fortunes of the whole Empire, and make us yearn for such a close union between all its sundry and sundered parts that each part may be for all, and all for each. "Let it then be our endeavour," says a strong patriot when in charge of our colonial interests, "let it be our task, to keep alight the torch of Imperial patriotism, and to keep warm the affection of our kinsmen across the seas, so that in every vicissitude of fortune the British Empire may present an unbroken front to all our foes, and to carry on to distant ages the glorious traditions of the British flag."

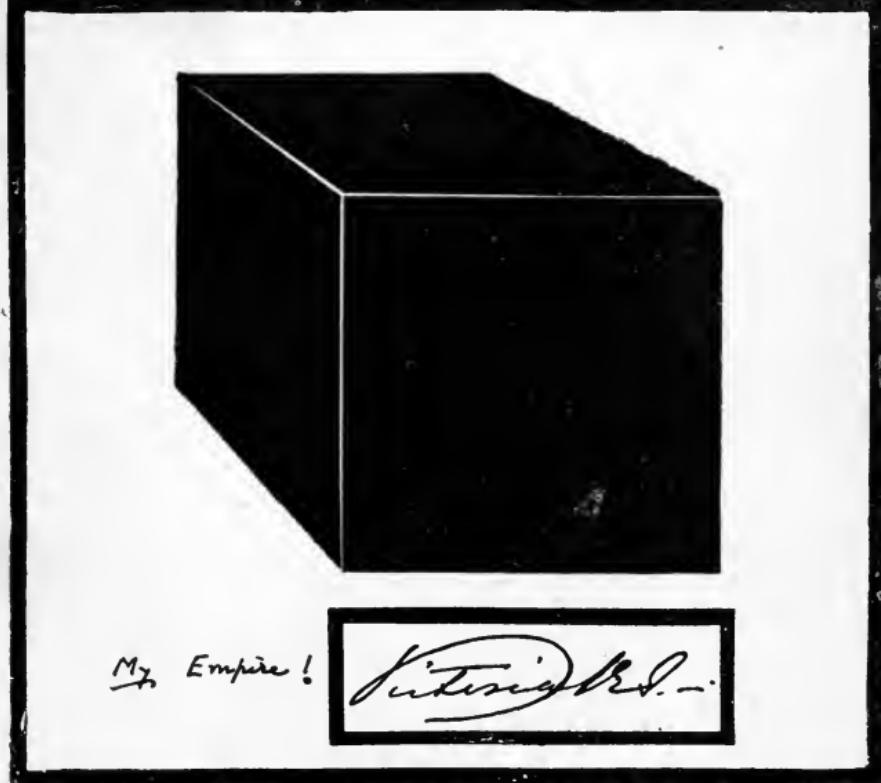
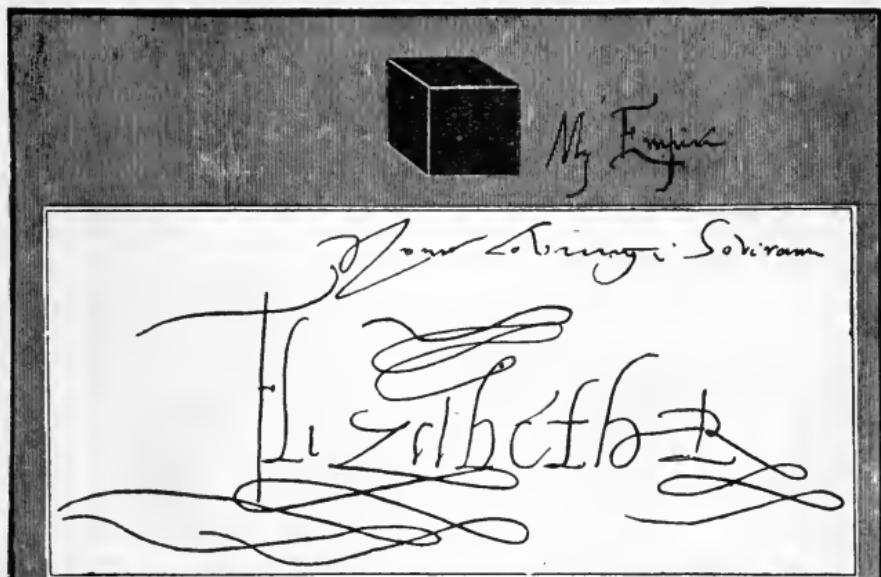
If ever you have taken a map of the world on which is marked in red the countries where British rule prevails, and contrasted their vast expanse with the little isle set in the silver sea that is our home, you may have wondered how this marvel has been wrought. The story which has here been briefly told will have given you, it is hoped, some idea how that dominion has been won, and how great is the inheritance our forefathers, by their valorous deeds, have won for us. There is little

left, in the nature of things, for the further enlargement of our empire. There is, however, much to be done in developing the resources of what is ours. Vast regions in Africa, for instance, have been marked out as spheres of British influence. It will tax all our energy, and task all our powers, to make that influence effectual in civilizing the natives, in enlightening their minds, in helping them to make the most of their country's wealth. Development not expansion, progress not conquest, must be our watchwords for the future.

At the same time, what has already been gained we must resolve to keep. It is absolutely vital to the struggling myriads of workers in our little island home that what our forefathers have won their children must hold. But on such a high theme as the union and integrity of our world-wide empire, it is only in the language of poetry that we can hear the full clear ring of the voice of imperial patriotism, as in those lines of Tennyson addressed to our fellow-countrymen in the colonies :—

Sharers of our glorious past,
Brothers, must we part at last?
Shall we not thro' good and ill . . .
Cleave to one another still?
Britain's myriad voices call,
" Sons, be welded each and all,
Into one imperial whole,
One with Britain, heart and soul !
One life, one flag, one fleet, one Throne !"
Britons, hold your own !

APPENDIX



THE RIVAL QUEENS. A Drama in Two Acts and four words.
(An interval of three hundred years occurs between Act I. and Act II.)

THE SIX GREAT POWERS & THEIR POSSESSIONS.

DIAGRAM I (Territory)..



Germany.



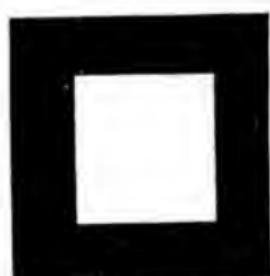
Austria.



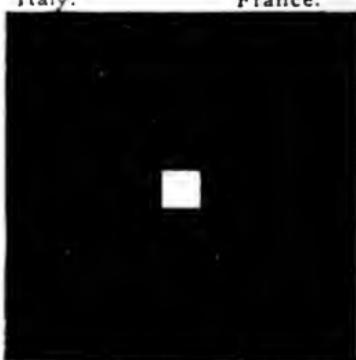
Italy.



France.



Russia.



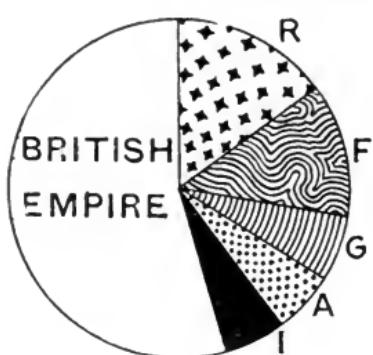
Great Britain.

This Diagram shows the areas of the six Countries, in comparison with their Colonies and Dependencies

The White Square represents the Country itself, and the Black Square its possessions.

The British Possessions are about 100 times as large as the British Isles.
 The French " " " 12 times as large as France
 The German " " " 5 times as large as Germany
 The Russian " " " 3½ times as large as Russia
 The Italian " " " 2½ times as large as Italy.
 The Austrian " " " 10 as large as Austria

DIAGRAM II (Population)



This diagram shows the comparative populations of the dominions (Home and Colonial) of the Six Great Powers, whose total population is about 700,000,000, distributed among those Powers and their Possessions, in the following proportions :—

British	...	more than	1
Russian	1
French	1
German	1
Austrian	1
Italian	1

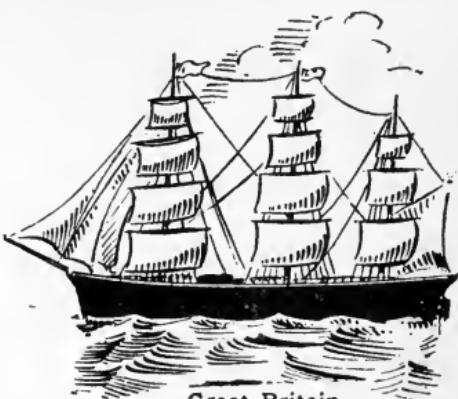
COMPARATIVE POPULATION—AREA and SHIPPING.

DIAGRAM I.



Diagram I compares Population of United Kingdom, with that of the Empire.

DIAGRAM III.

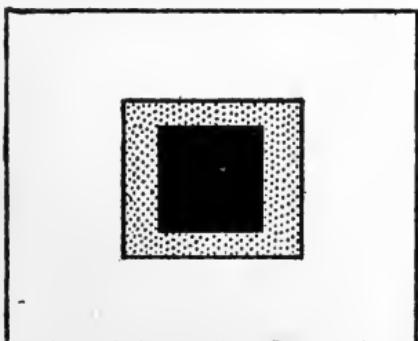


British Empire	...	13½ million tons
Un. States	...	2½ "
Germany	...	2 "
Norway	...	1½ "
France	...	1½ "



DIAGRAM II.

Diagram II compares the areas of the British Empire, with Europe and the Earth (land).



Europe—Black Square.
British Empire—Spotted Square.
Earth (land)—White Square.

Diagram III compares the tonnage of British Shipping, with that of other Countries.

SIZE AND POPULATION OF THE SIX GREAT EMPIRES.

	AREA IN SQUARE MILES.		POPULATION.	
	Country.	Colonies and Dependencies.	Country.	Colonies and Dependencies.
Great Britain	120,000	About 11,300,000	38,000,000	About 350,000,000
Russia	2,095,000	7,300,000	99,531,000	19,000,000
France	204,000	2,500,000	38,300,000	38,000,000
Germany	211,000	1,000,000	49,428,000	6,000,000
Italy	114,400	280,000	30,535,000	1,500,000
Austria	240,900	24,000	41,358,000	500,000

ANNUAL VALUE OF SEA-BORNE COMMERCE.

British	About £1,100,000,000
German	£400,000,000
United States	£300,000,000
France	£250,000,000
Russia	£70,000,000
Italy	£50,000,000

SUMMARY

GROWTH OF THE EMPIRE

THE reign of Queen Elizabeth was a period of preparation for planting Colonies and founding an Empire. The date of James I.'s accession (1603) may be fitly taken as a starting-point in tracing the growth of the Empire, and the three centuries between that time and ours may be conveniently divided into five periods:

- First period ending with the Treaty of Utrecht, 1713.
- Second period ending with the Treaty of Paris, 1763.
- Third period ending with the Treaty of Versailles, 1783.
- Fourth period ending with the Treaty of Vienna, 1815.
- Fifth period coming down to the present day.

1. Period of Early Colonisation (1603-1713).

- (1) First permanent settlement at Jamestown in 1607. Colonisation of Virginia, New England, and all the remaining Colonies, except Georgia, which have since expanded into the United States.
- (2) Acquisition of the Bermudas, Barbadoes, Jamaica, and St. Helena.
- (3) By the Treaty of Utrecht was admitted our claim to Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, and Hudson Bay Territory.

2. Period of Conquest (1713-1763).

- (1) Conquest of Canada from the French after the capture of Quebec by General Wolfe.
- (2) Foundation of our Indian Empire laid by Clive at the battle of Plassey.

Period of Conquest.—(*Continued.*)

- (3) By the Treaty of Paris, France ceded to England all her former possessions in North America except New Orleans; and Spain yielded Florida in exchange for Havana, which the English had captured.

3. Period of Loss (1763-1783).

- (1) Loss of the Thirteen Colonies in the American War of Independence.
- (2) As a set off we have the discovery of New Zealand and New South Wales by Captain Cook about the same time.
- (3) Consolidation of British rule in India by Warren Hastings.

4. Period of Trial and Triumph (1783-1815).

- (1) First settlers landed in Australia (1788); Sydney founded; Tasmania occupied.
- (2) During the Napoleonic Wars the British captured—
 - Trinidad from the Spaniards;
 - Ceylon, Cape of Good Hope, and Guiana from the Dutch;
 - Malta, Mauritius, Tobago, and St. Lucia from the French.

All these gains were conceded to England by the Treaty of Vienna.

- (3) In India British rule was made paramount by Marquess Wellesley through the utter defeat of the Mahratta princes and Tippoo, Sultan of Mysore.

5. Period of Emigration and Expansion (1815—present day).

Great impetus was given to emigration by the Peace of 1815, the Irish Famine of 1845-47, and the discovery of gold in Australia in 1851. In some years since then more than a quarter million of persons have emigrated from the United Kingdom.

The expansion of the Empire has been equally remarkable. This has been effected in three ways—by peaceful settlement, by force of arms, and by friendly treaty with native princes.

The additions made to the Empire need not here be given in detail, for they include, of course, all those parts of the Empire that have not been already

Period of Emigration and Expansion.
—(Continued.)

stated. I may mention, however, that when the Queen began her reign British India did not include Oudh, nor the Punjab, nor Burma; in Australia there was no Victoria or Queensland; New Zealand formed no part of the Empire; in Africa there was hardly any British territory except Cape Colony, which then was only about half its present size; in America British Columbia had not yet received its name, Manitoba had not yet been heard of; and of the numerous small dependencies, which are sometimes of great value, we had neither Aden nor Hong Kong.

DOMINION OF CANADA

1. Canada was discovered by Cartier, a French explorer, in 1535. It was first colonized by the French under Champlain, who founded Quebec in 1608, and afterwards built a fort on the island of Montreal for the protection of the fur-traders.
2. Canada was conquered by the English in the "Seven Years' War." Quebec was captured by Wolfe in 1759, and in the following year Montreal surrendered to General Amherst, when all French troops in Canada laid down their arms and were shipped off to France.
3. The French colonists remained under British rule, and being left in the enjoyment of their own laws and customs, proved loyal to the British Crown in the war of American Independence. At the conclusion of this war thousands of "loyalists" left the United States, and settled in Canada.
4. Before the end of the 18th century the colony was divided into two provinces, called Upper and Lower Canada, the former inhabited mainly by British settlers, the latter by French. All went well for some years, each province being governed separately. But by the year of the Queen's accession (1837) the colony had outgrown its mode of

government, and rose in rebellion. This having been put down goodwill was restored by the grant of self-government (1841). From this time Canada made rapid progress. In the next quarter-century the population nearly trebled itself.

5. The next great step onwards was taken in 1867, when an Act was passed empowering all the British Colonies of North America to form a Federal Union under the name of the Dominion of Canada. By the end of six years the Dominion embraced all British North America except Newfoundland. Whilst each province manages its own particular affairs, the Dominion Parliament, meeting at Ottawa, legislates for the whole country in matters that concern the whole, such as protection against invasion, means of communication (railroads, telegraphs, etc.), and the taxes to be paid on exports and imports.
6. As one important result of this federation the Canadian Pacific Railway was constructed right across the Continent, and opened in 1885. Great progress has since been made in the development of Canada's resources. Rich gold fields also have been discovered at Klondyke, and there is every prospect of Canada becoming a great nation.

AUSTRALASIA

1. **New South Wales** was discovered by Captain Cook in 1769, and in 1788 a shipload of convicts was landed at Port Jackson, and Sydney founded. To Captain Philip, the first governor, the colony owes its escape from famine and disaster. In 1813 the way across the Blue Mountains was discovered, and a fine agricultural country opened up around Bathurst. Sheep-farming now became the chief occupation, and free settlers began to arrive. After 1840 no more convicts were sent to this colony, and within a few years the system was abolished throughout Australia. Self-government with local Parliaments followed in due course.
2. **Tasmania** also began its existence as a convict colony. The first batch of convicts was landed in 1804 on the spot where Hobart was built. The colony suffered for many years from the hostility of the natives and from the depredations of "bush-rangers," as the escaped convicts were called. Both of these evils were effectually dealt with by Colonel Arthur, who ruled the colony from 1824 to 1836, and laid the foundation of Tasmania's prosperity.
3. **West Australia** began its struggling existence in 1829. By the recent discovery of gold in this colony a brighter prospect opens for it. **South Australia** dates from 1836, when Adelaide was founded. Only free settlers were admitted. It passed through a period of great poverty and distress. A better day dawned with the discovery of the Burra Burra copper mines (1845). **Victoria** was formed into a separate colony in 1837, the year of the Queen's accession, when Melbourne was founded. **Queensland** was separated from New South Wales in 1859. Its progress has since been rapid.
4. **Discovery of Gold**, in 1851, gave a great impetus to immigration, and greatly accelerated the progress of Australia. It was first found at Bathurst, in New South Wales, but Ballarat and Sandhurst, in Victoria, proved to be the richest gold centres. The value of the gold obtained in Australia between 1851 and 1891 amounts to £300,000,000. The population of Victoria in the meantime rose from 72,000 to 1½ millions, Melbourne, its capital, now containing 300,000, and forming the largest city in the Southern Hemisphere. Though gold is still one of Australia's chief products, wool greatly exceeds it in value.
5. **New Zealand** began to be colonized in 1840. By the Treaty of Waitangi the Maoris consented to take the Queen as their sovereign, and to permit her people to settle in their country on condition that they purchased the land they required. The colony made great progress under the administration of Sir George Grey, who held office from 1845 to 1853. On his return to New Zealand as Governor in 1861, he found the natives in arms, much discontent being felt at the alarming growth in the number of British settlers and the amount of land which had passed into their hands. The war continued until 1870, when the brave Maoris gave up the struggle as hopeless. During the ten years of the war, which was confined to the North Island, the colonists in the South Island made wonderful progress, especially after the discovery of gold in Otago. The natural resources of the country, and its splendid climate, have continued to attract numerous emigrants, and now there are sixteen colonists to one native, the whole population amounting to 650,000.

BRITISH SOUTH AFRICA

1. Cape of Good Hope was discovered by a Portuguese mariner named Diaz in 1483. The Dutch began to settle at the Cape in 1652. Cape Colony was captured by the English in 1806, but no step was taken by them to colonise it until 1820, when Port Elizabeth was founded.
2. The next thirty or forty years were marked by wars between British, Dutch, and Kaffirs for the mastery. There were three Kaffir wars, each ending in an extension of British territory, and by 1865 Cape Colony included all the native states south of the Orange River. Meanwhile the Boers, or Dutch farmers, emigrated from Cape Colony and founded two independent states, namely, the Transvaal, or South African Republic, and the Orange Free State. They had previously endeavoured to settle in Natal, but that Colony was annexed by the British Government in 1843.
3. The prosperity of Cape Colony dates from the discovery of diamonds at Kimberley in 1870. Since then the diamond mines have yielded an average revenue of between two and three millions per annum. This discovery of diamonds led to the annexation of Griqualand West, in which Kimberley is situated.
4. North of Natal, and separated from it by the river Tugela, is Zululand. In 1879 a British force crossed the Tugela to make war on Ketshwayo, the Zulu king, whose army was a constant source of danger to the peace and security of Natal. The war was marked by a massacre of our troops at Isandlana, and by the heroic defence of Rorke's Drift, a ford of the Tugela, by a small British force. A pitched battle fought at Ulundi brought the war to a successful close. Zululand is now annexed to Natal.
5. Our next extension of territory took place in 1885, when Bechuanaland to the south of the river Molopo was constituted a Crown Colony under the name of British Bechuanaland. The whole of Bechuanaland north of the Molopo has since been formed into a protectorate. In consequence of the discovery of rich gold-fields in the Transvaal, a great impetus was given to exploration and settlement in the country north of the Transvaal, and now called Rhodesia.
6. Rhodesia stretches from the Limpopo to the Zambesi. It includes the country of the Matabeles and Mashonas. The former, being a warlike tribe, fought bravely for their independence under their king, Lobengula. His army of 10,000 men, however, was no match for a British force of 800 men armed with modern weapons, and well led by Dr. Jameson. The capital, Bulawayo, was taken; the king escaped, but died soon afterwards (1893). The Matabeles have since risen in rebellion, but there is every hope now that Rhodesia has entered on a period of peace and prosperity. A railway has already been opened at Bulawayo, connecting it with Cape Town, and before long it will pass through Salisbury, the capital of Mashonaland, to the port of Beira on the east coast, and then make its way northwards from Salisbury to the Zambesi in the direction of Lake Tanganyika.

BRITISH INDIA

1. The East India Company received its first charter from Queen Elizabeth in 1600. For 150 years it was merely a trading company, and during that time established factories, or trading stations, at Surat, Bombay, Madras, and Calcutta.
2. A new era opened with the year 1748, when Dupleix, the French Governor, interfered in disputes between rival

princes for the throne. The English soon followed suit, and in every dispute between native princes the two nations took opposite sides. The first great success on the British side was made by *Clive* at Arcot. This led to the downfall of the prince that Dupleix had set up, and Dupleix himself was recalled to France.

3. In 1757 occurred the tragedy of "The Black Hole of Calcutta." Clive was sent with a small army to take vengeance on Surajah Dowlah, the Nabob of Bengal, and by his victory at Plassey laid the foundation of British rule in India. The new Nabob of Bengal was only a puppet in Clive's hands. This success was followed by the victory of Sir Eyre Coote, at Wandewash, in 1760—a victory which led to the extinction of French rule in India.

4. The next great builder of our Indian Empire was *Warren Hastings*, who was appointed Governor-General in 1774. He consolidated our rule by his victories over the Mahratta princes, and by his energy and spirit raised an army that enabled Sir Eyre Coote to crush our great enemy, Hyder Ali, Sultan of Mysore, at Porto Novo.

5. Between 1798 and 1805 the office of Governor-General was held by *Marquess Wellesley*. He induced the Nizam of the Deccan and other native princes to accept British protection, on the condition that each should be absolute in his own state, but be guided by our representative at his court in all matters relating to other states. War was declared against Tippoo, Sultan of Mysore, the son and successor of Hyder Ali. The storming of Seringapatam, his capital, and his own death when fighting in the breach, put an end to the war, and led to the partition of his kingdom. We next find the Nabob of Oudh ceding the territory called the Doab, between the Ganges and the Jumna, and accepting the same position as the Nizam.

The Marquess next took in hand the Mahratta princes. He induced the Prince of Poona to accept British protection, and made war upon the Mahratta chiefs Holkar and Scindia. He appointed General Lake to conduct the war against Holkar, and his brother, Arthur Wellesley, the future Duke of Wellington, to deal with Scindia. Wellesley won the hard-fought battle of Assaye, and brought Scindia to submission, whilst Lake was ultimately successful in his task.

6. *Lord Hastings* became Governor-General in 1814, and during his rule annexed Nepal, from which we have since drawn those excellent little soldiers, the Ghoorkas. By this time the English were practically supreme over the whole peninsula south of a line drawn from the mouth of the Indus to that of the Ganges, and over the basin of the Ganges itself.

7. Between 1848 and 1856 India was ruled by the *Marquis of Dalhousie*, who annexed more territory than any other Governor-General before or since. By the defeat of the Sikhs at Googerat and elsewhere, their country, the Punjab, was brought under British rule. The Sikhs have ever since supplied our Indian army with brave and loyal soldiers. The southern part of Burma, including the port of Rangoon, was next added to the Empire. Of the many other states drawn into the British net by Dalhousie, the most important was the Kingdom of Oudh, "the Garden of India." His high-handed proceedings in Oudh had much to do with the Indian Mutiny that occurred soon afterwards.

8. The Indian Mutiny broke out in 1857 at Meerut. The chief centres of the war that followed were Delhi, Cawnpore, and Lucknow. Lucknow is celebrated for its siege, and the relief brought to the distressed garrison by General Havelock. Cawnpore was the scene of the "Bloody Well." Delhi was the headquarters of the rebels, and there the neck of the rebellion was broken, when the city was captured by our troops. Before the close of 1858 the rebellion was at an end, and the governing power transferred from the Company to the Crown.

9. In 1877 the Queen was declared *Empress of India*, and in 1885, as the result of another Burmese War, the rest of Burma was incorporated with our Indian Empire. This completed the conquest of India, but nearly two-fifths still remain under the "home rule" of native princes.

OTHER BRITISH POSSESSIONS

Gibraltar.—Taken by Sir George Rooke in 1704. Withstood a great siege (1779-83) under General Eliott.

Malta.—Taken from the French in 1800. It is the headquarters of the British fleet in the Mediterranean.

Note.—Under the guns of Malta and Gibraltar our ships in time of war could, if necessary, take refuge. Here also they could repair and refit, and take in coal, without which our men-of-war would be unable to stir.

Cyprus.—Ceded by Turkey in 1878, on the promise of a certain annual payment.

Aden.—“The Gibraltar of the East” was captured in 1839. It has an excellent harbour, and stands within easy distance of the entrance to the Red Sea. The little island of Perim, situated in the entrance itself, has also been seized and fortified by the British.

Ceylon.—The towns on the coasts were captured from the Dutch in the beginning of the century, and the interior was afterwards ceded by the Cingalese (1815). Colombo is an important coaling-station.

The Straits Settlements.—These lie in the Straits of Malacca, and include Penang, Malacca, Singapore, and the Cocos or Keeling Islands. All of these have been acquired by purchase and treaty with the native princes between 1785 and 1824. Singapore is one of the great world-centres of commerce. The Cocos Islands are valuable as a coaling-station.

Hong Kong.—It was first occupied by the British in 1841, in the course of a war with China. It now stands fourth in the whole world for the amount of shipping that passes through its waters.

Mauritius.—Seized in 1810 from the French. It is of much importance from a military point of view, being situated midway between the British possessions in India and South Africa.

St. Helena.—Ceded by the Dutch in 1673; Napoleon's place of exile from 1815 until his death in 1821. Valuable as a coaling-station.

Sierra Leone.—Ceded by a native chief in 1787 for the reception of freed negroes. Many then in England were sent out and settled at its capital, Freetown, which long remained a dépôt for freed slaves.

Newfoundland.—Taken possession of by Sir Humphrey Gilbert in 1583, but not occupied till long after except in summer by the fishermen of many seafaring nations. The English claim to its possession was acknowledged in the Treaty of Utrecht (1713).

Bermudas.—These islands were first occupied in 1609 by Admiral Somers, who was wrecked on one of the islands when convoying eight emigrant ships to Virginia. As a naval station the importance of Bermuda can hardly be overstated.

British West Indies.—*Barbadoes* was the first of these islands to be occupied by the British, who took possession in 1625. It is still the headquarters for British troops in the West Indies. *Jamaica* was captured from the Spaniards by an expedition sent by Cromwell in 1655. Kingston, its chief town, has a splendid harbour, and forms our chief naval station in the Caribbean Sea. *St. Lucia*, after changing masters, English and French, several times, has remained in our possession since 1803. It is of considerable value to us as a naval and coaling station. *Trinidad* was taken from the Spaniards in 1797.

British Honduras.—The first English settlers (1638) were probably buccaneers. The British took formal possession in 1798, after defeating the Spaniards, who laid claim to it.

British Guiana.—Raleigh went on a voyage up the Orinoco in 1595, but no actual settlement resulted. After many dissensions between Dutch, French, and

English settlers, Great Britain in 1814 finally secured the portion now known as British Guiana. Its exact boundary on the side of Venezuela is now being settled by arbitration.

Fiji Islands.—These islands, situated in the Pacific a little north of the Tropic

of Capricorn, were ceded in 1874 by the native chief, who sent to the Queen his great war-club as a token of his allegiance.

Note.—There are in the British Empire many other smaller dependencies which might be mentioned, besides the protectorates in Borneo and Africa, which have not yet come under direct British rule.

ACQUISITIONS ACCORDING TO REIGNS.

SOVEREIGN.	DATE.	POSSESSIONS GAINED BY		
		OCCUPATION.	CONQUEST.	CESSION.
Elizabeth . . .	1588-1603	(Virginia) Newfoundland	—	—
James I. . .	1603-1625	Barbadoes Bermudas (New England)	—	—
Charles I. . .	1625-1649	Bahamas (Maryland)	—	—
Commonwealth	1649-1660	—	Jamaica	—
Charles II. . .	1660-1685	(Carolina) (Pennsylvania) Hudson Bay Ter.	(New York) (New Jersey) St. Helena	Bombay.
James II. . .	1685-1688	—	—	—
William III. . .	1688-1702	—	—	—
Anne. . . .	1702-1714	—	Gibraltar Nova Scotia	—
George I. . .	1714-1727	—	—	—
George II. . .	1727-1760	(Georgia)	Canada, New Brunswick, Cape Breton I., Prince Edward I., Bengal	—
George III. . .	1760-1820	New South Wales, Tasmania, Red River Settlement [now grown into Manitoba]	(Florida), Brit. Honduras, Trini- dad, Malta, Cape Colony, Brit. Guiana, Mauritius, Cey- lon, Centre and South of British India	Sierra Leone.
George IV. . .	1820-1830	West Australia	Assam	Singapore.
William IV. . .	1830-1837	South Australia	—	—
Victoria . . .	1837- . . .	Victoria, New Zealand, Natal, Brit. Columbia, Queensland, etc.	Aden, Hong Kong, Scinde, Punjab, Oudh, Burma, Zulu- land, Rhodesia, etc.	Perim, Cyprus, West Griqua Land, Bechuanaland, Basutoland, British Borneo, Fiji Islands, etc.

LEADING EVENTS WITH DATES

A.D.		A.D.	
1453.	Fall of Constantinople.	1813.	Battle of Vittoria.
1483.	Diaz reaches the Cape of Good Hope.	1813.	The Blue Mountains crossed.
1492.	Columbus discovers America.	1815.	Battle of Waterloo.
1498.	Vasco da Gama doubles the Cape.	1819.	Conquest of Ceylon completed.
1539.	The English Bible set up in Churches.	1820.	Singapore occupied by Sir Stamford Raffles.
1579.	Holland gains its Independence.	1820.	English immigration begun in Cape Colony.
1588.	Defeat of the Spanish Armada.	1830.	Opening of first Railway for passenger traffic.
1607.	First permanent Settlement of the English in America.	1832.	First Reform Bill passed.
1620.	Landing of the Pilgrim Fathers in America.	1838.	Emancipation of Slaves in British Empire.
1655.	Capture of Jamaica from the Spaniards.	1839.	Aden captured and annexed.
1688.	Landing of the Prince of Orange.	1839.	Steamships first crossed the Atlantic.
1692.	Battle of La Hogue.	1840.	Treaty of Waitangi and first settlement of British emigrants in New Zealand.
1704.	Marlborough's Victory at Blenheim.	1840.	Self-government first granted to Canada.
1704.	Capture of Gibraltar by Admiral Rooke.	1840.	Penury Postage established.
1707.	Union of England and Scotland.	1841.	Hong Kong taken.
1713.	Treaty of Utrecht.	1843.	Natal annexed.
1757.	Battle of Plassey.	1846.	Repeal of Duty on Corn.
1758.	Louisbourg taken from the French.	1849.	Sikhs defeated and Punjab annexed.
1759.	Capture of Quebec by General Wolfe.	1851.	Gold discovered in Australia.
1759.	Hawke's Victory at Quiberon Bay.	1852.	Lower Burma annexed.
1760.	Battle of Wandewash, the death-blow to French rule in India.	1856.	Kingdom of Oudh annexed.
1763.	Treaty of Paris.	1857.	Outbreak of Indian Mutiny.
1769.	Australia Explored by Captain Cook.	1866.	Electric Cable laid across the Atlantic.
1782.	End of the Siege of Gibraltar.	1870.	Discovery of Diamonds at Kimberley.
1782.	Rodney's Great Victory in the W. Indies.	1870.	West Griqualand annexed.
1783.	Treaty of Versailles and Loss of the Thirteen Colonies.	1874.	Cession of Fiji Islands.
1788.	First Settlement of the English in Australia; Sydney founded.	1876.	The Queen proclaimed Empress of India.
1789.	Outbreak of the French Revolution.	1879.	Defeat of Zulus at Ulundi.
1794.	Victory of Lord Howe off Brest.	1882.	Battle of Tel-el-Kebir.
1797.	Victory of Admiral Jervis off St. Vincent.	1885.	Fall of Khartoum and Death of Gordon.
1797.	Victory of Admiral Duncan off Camperdown.	1885.	British Bechuanaland constituted a Crown Colony.
1798.	Battle of the Nile.	1885.	Upper Burma annexed.
1800.	The French driven out of Malta.	1890.	Agreement with Germany respecting spheres of influence in Africa.
1800.	Union of Great Britain and Ireland.	1890.	First Settlement in Rhodesia.
1803.	Battle of Assaye.	1893.	Matabeles defeated; Bulawayo taken.
1805.	Battle of Trafalgar.	1895.	Zululand annexed to Natal.
1806.	Cape Town taken from the Dutch.	1898.	Defeat of the Dervishes at Omdurman.
1807.	First Steamboat on the Hudson.	1898.	Tsar's invitation to a Peace Conference.
	Abolition of the Slave Trade.		

MEANINGS

Abdication , giving up the throne.	Exemption , freedom from some burden or penalty.
Aboriginal , one of the earliest race inhabiting a country.	Exterminate , to destroy utterly.
Acme , topmost point.	Fanatic , one who entertains wild and extravagant notions of religion.
Anarchy , lawlessness.	Federal , united in a federation or league.
Annexation , addition of a new possession.	Federal Government , one that rules the States which are confederated or leagued together for certain purposes.
Annihilation , act of reducing to nothing.	Flotilla , a fleet of small vessels.
Arquebuse (<i>är'-kwe-bus</i>), an old-fashioned musket.	Formidable (<i>förd'-mid-able</i>), exciting fear, extremely difficult.
Auspices , protection and influence.	Galleon (<i>gal'-e-un</i>), a large Spanish ship.
Broadside , a simultaneous discharge of all the guns on one side of a ship.	Galley , a small ship worked with sails and oars.
Bullion , gold or silver in the mass or in bars.	Husband resources , to save up and make a sparing use of one's means of support.
Carrack , an armed merchant-ship.	Immolation , sacrifice
Chagrin (<i>sha-green'</i>), vexation.	Immunity , freedom from some burden.
Chartless waters , seas not yet sounded and mapped out.	Imperial responsibility , obligation to discharge certain duties relating to the Empire.
Confederation , (1) uniting States by a league binding them to act together in matters of common interest ; (2) States united by a league for common action in certain matters.	Impetus , a force urging one forward.
Constitution , the fundamental laws for the government of a State.	Impregnable , not able to be taken by force.
Consummation , completion of a work.	Inaccessible , not able to be approached.
Con'versant , having a familiar knowledge.	Incentive , motive, spur.
Corporation , a body of men appointed to govern a city or other locality.	Incorporate , to make part and parcel of some society or other body.
Corsair , a pirate or sea-robber.	Indomitable , not able to be mastered.
Cortez , the commander of a Spanish army that conquered Mexico (1520).	Inquisition , a court for trying "heretics."
Destiny , fate, fortune, or lot.	Integral , forming a necessary part of some whole.
Development , gradual growth or advancement by a series of changes.	Jesuit , a member of the "Society of Jesus," a religious order of the Roman Catholic Church.
Duquesne (<i>du kain'</i>), a fort where Pittsburgh now stands.	Jury packed , a jury composed entirely of men either strongly in favour of the prisoner or against him.
El Dorado , a fabulous place rich in gold ; literally, "the golden."	Laager (<i>lah-gur</i>), an enclosure formed of wagons for the purpose of defence in war.
Embargo , an order prohibiting certain ships to leave ports.	Lee shore , shore on which the wind is driving.
Emergency , pressing necessity.	Legislature , Parliament or other body whose duty it is to legislate or make laws.
Entrepôt (<i>on'-tre-po</i>), an emporium or commercial centre for the storage and exchange of goods.	Low Countries , Netherlands, including Holland and what is now called Belgium.
Executive Council , a body of men appointed to see that the laws are carried out.	

Manifesto, a public declaration, usually of a sovereign or government.

Mealies, Indian corn.

Monopoly of trade, sole right to trade.

Nonconformist, one who refuses to conform to the rules of the Established Church, a Dissenter.

Obliterate every vestige, to wipe out every trace, to do away with completely.

Ordnance, great guns, artillery.

Organization, arrangement of the parts of a body in relation to each other with some special end in view.

Paramount, supreme.

Penal settlement, a place for convicts to work out their punishment.

Pillory, a punishment post provided with means for holding the head and hands of an offender.

Pioneer, one who goes on ahead to prepare the way for others.

Pizarro, the commander of a band of Spanish adventurers who conquered Peru (1533).

Plebeian stamp (*ple-be'-an*), having the character and appearance of a man of the lower ranks.

Policy, the line of conduct which the rulers of a nation adopt on any question.

Political, relating to the Government of a State.

Popular branch (of the Legislature), the House of Commons; the term "popular" means relating to the people.

Potent factor, a powerful cause among others in producing some result.

Practical breach, a gap made in the walls of a fortress sufficiently large to admit the besiegers.

Precedent (*pres'-e-dent*), something said

or done which may serve as a rule to be followed in future.

Predominant, superior in power.

Prestige (*pres-teezh'*), influence derived from previous achievements.

Privateer, a war-vessel owned by private persons, but licensed by the Government.

Promiscuous humanity, all sorts and conditions of men and women.

Protectorate, a country under the protection of another.

Protégé (*pro'-ta-zha*), one under the care and protection of another.

Prowess, valour and skill in war.

Reconciliation, renewal of friendship.

Redress of grievances, remedy for evils in the mode of Government.

Retrenchment, the lessening of expenses.

Retrogressive, going backward, getting worse.

Sarawak (*sah-rah'-wak*), in Borneo.

Sepoys, native Indian soldiers in British service.

Sortie (*sor'-ty*), sally, outrush of troops.

Subsidy, a sum of money paid by one Government to help another.

Tactics, art of arranging forces in war.

Territorial expansion, extension or enlargement of territory or landed possessions.

Trophy, a memorial of victory.

Unparalleled, without parallel, unequalled.

Wampum, small beads made of shells, and wrought into belts, etc.

Westward Ho, name of a book by Charles Kingsley.

Wherry, a river-boat.

Zareba (*sah re'-bah*), a temporary camping ground surrounded by a fence of bushes, etc.

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